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ABSTRACT

The papers contained in this volume were given during a conference on "Humanistic Education in Desegregated Schools." The papers address a variety of issues in humanistic education, some practical and some theoretical. All attempt to assist elementary and secondary school personnel to accept diversity, whether based on race, sex, or national origin, as a viable inclusion in instructional materials and processes. They are based on the idea that the affective component of learning should not be left to chance, but intentionally built into the lesson design. The proceedings are divided into four major sections: (1) The Role of Teachers and Administrators in Humanistic Education; (2) Cross-Cultural Communications: A Means to Humanistic Desegregation; (3) Implementing Humanistic Education in the Desegregated Classroom; and (4) Why Humanistic Education? (Author)

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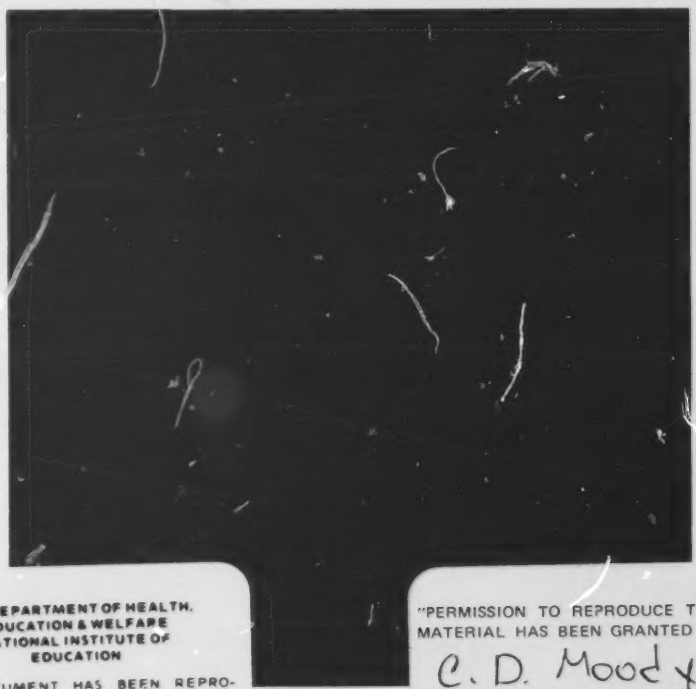

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HUMANISTIC EDUCATION
IN DESEGREGATED SCHOOLS

HUMANISTIC EDUCATION

IN DESEGREGATED SCHOOLS

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PREFACE

The Program for Educational Opportunity is a university-based institute designed to assist school districts in the process of desegregation based on race, national origin, and sex. The Program, based at The University of Michigan, was established by the U.S. Office of Education pursuant to Title IV of the 1964 Civil Rights Act.

Besides providing in-district services on request and without charge to public schools in Michigan, the Program annually conducts a series of conferences.

Several conferences were held during the Winter and Spring of 1976-77 covering topics of critical importance to school board members, administrators, teachers, students, and community. Papers from these conferences are incorporated into several sets of proceedings, this one among them.

To the consultants from professional associations, governmental agencies, university communities, and practicing educators and attorneys, the Program expresses its appreciation for their sharing of experience and dedication to the proposition of equal educational opportunity.

Special appreciation is due Wilbur J. Cohen, Dean of the School of Education, for his continuing interest and support of the Program.

Finally, contributions of the individuals responsible for the planning and coordinating of the conferences and these proceedings are acknowledged.

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INTRODUCTION

Charles D. Moody, Sr.*

The concept of multicultural curriculum may be suffering a fate similar to that of some other movements of the 1960s and early 1970s. That is, a seeming withdrawal from them by a large segment of the educational community.

The move away from multicultural education seems to be founded on the back-to-the-basics movement. This movement is articulated far too often through the misperception that basics cannot be taught with multiculturally oriented curricular materials. In an attempt to assist elementary and secondary school personnel to accept diversity, whether based on race, sex, or national origin, as a strength and as a viable inclusion in instructional processes and materials, PEO held a series of conferences and workshops on the topic.

The papers included in these proceedings deal with some theoretical as well as some practical discussions of multiculturalism, racism, and sexism in curriculum and instruction.

Abe Citron's article discusses multiculturalism as an education for Americans. He provides a comprehensive definition of multiculturalism and gives a note on its social origin. Citron presents the politics of multiculturalism, as well as some steps needed to move from monocultural education to multicultural education.

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*Charles D. Moody, Sr. is the Director of the Program for Educational Opportunity in Ann Arbor, Michigan.

> The major premise of confluent education is that every meaningful learning experience contains an affective (emotional) as well as a cognitive (mental) component. Each is seen as an integral part of the learning process. Confluent education seeks to take advantage of the affective component already present (either in subject matter or student) and incorporate it into the curriculum.
>
> In many respects, confluent education is nothing new; it is simply what good teachers have been doing for years. What may be new or different is that the inclusion of the affective component does not happen by chance. The affective component is intentionally built into a lesson design, and the affective learning about self is regarded as important; it is legitimate in its own right.

The Program for Educational Opportunity sponsored a conference, "Humanistic Education in Desegregated Schools." The papers contained in these proceedings were given during that conference. The papers address a variety of issues in humanistic education. Some of the paper are theoretical and philosophical, while others contain very practical how-to ideas.

These proceedings are divided into four major sections:

I. The Role of Teachers and Administrators in Humanistic Education

II. Cross-Cultural Communications: A Means to Humanistic Desegregation

III. Implementing Humanistic Education in the Desegregated Classroom

IV. Why Humanistic Education?

I. THE ROLE OF TEACHERS AND ADMINISTRATORS IN HUMANISTIC EDUCATION

CONFLUENT EDUCATION AND THE MIDDLE SCHOOL CURRICULUM

Dennis Pataniczek*

The current movement to "humanize" classrooms has taken many forms which share the goal of encouraging students to participate more fully in all aspects of school life. One such attempt takes the name of "confluent education." Developed at the University of California, Santa Barbara, confluent education is the intentional merger of cognitive and affective components of learning and teaching. It is, simply stated, the merger of thoughts and feelings in the classroom.

The major premise of confluent education is that every meaningful learning experience contains an affective (emotional) as well as a cognitive (mental) component. Each is seen as an integral part of the learning process. Confluent education seeks to take advantage of the affective component already present (either in subject matter or student) and incorporate it into the curriculum.

In many respects, confluent education is nothing new; it is simply what good teachers have been doing for years. What may be new or different is that the inclusion of the affective component does not happen by chance. The affective component is intentionally built into a lesson design, and the affective learning about the self is regarded as important; it is legitimate in its own right.

There are several essential components to planning for confluent education, as it is discussed by

*Dennis Pataniczek is a graduate student at Michigan State University, East Lansing, Michigan.

its developers and practitioners. They may be generally categorized as awareness, responsibility, and readiness. Each is uniquely important.

Awareness is a key first ingredient. Both students and teachers must learn to be aware of what is going on--within themselves and about them. Previous work in the area of confluent education has made great use of gestalt awareness exercises as well as other techniques such as psychosynthesis and values clarification. All of these exercises may be used with student groups.

Responsibility is a second key concept. There are two useful ways of looking at this concept. The first view of responsibility that confluent education promotes is that individuals take responsibility for their own actions. Ownership of behavior and actions is stressed and practiced. Again the use of gestalt exercises which emphasize dealing with the here and now (the present), and with awareness of one's actions and their consequences, are ways to develop consciousness in this area. The second view of responsibility involves individuals being able to respond to their own thoughts and feelings as well as to react to the thoughts and feelings of others.

Awareness and responsibility are not automatic. Both require readiness. Because confluent education usually involves a good deal of student interaction and sharing of thoughts and feelings, an atmosphere of trust, where dialogue may take place freely, is essential. Students and teachers alike should participate in activities that will enhance the trust level of the group. Readiness activities to build awareness and self-ownership may also be important steps in getting ready for confluent education.

The middle years of a young person (ages 10 to 14) are a period of change, curiosity, uncertainty

and discovery. Questions of identity (Who am I? Am I different? Is what's happening to my body normal? Why am I treated as a child, but expected to act as an adult?) and of connectedness (relationships with peers, siblings, parents, teachers, and other adults) often emerge at this time, and are vital concerns of youngsters at this time of change.

The key ingredients of awareness and responsibility described above are most helpful in dealing with such changes and concerns. To be aware of, to be able to respond to, and to take responsibility for such changes and questions is vital at this period of life, and are valued as life skills.

The middle school itself provides an additional rationale for emphasizing awareness and responsibility. Believers in the middle school concept would argue that this age span is a time for exploration, and that these skills can better enable youngsters to cope with new data gathered about him/her and his/her relationship to others.

Implementing confluent education is not difficult, nor is it automatic. There would seem to be several important steps in its successful design and implementation.

First, the teacher must be committed to the belief that emotions are an integral part of learning, and that feelings may be a legitimate object of study. It must be emphasized that this study is not to the exclusion of cognitive goals; confluent education seeks integration of the cognitive and affective realms.

A second essential step is that teachers and students must work together to build a classroom climate of trust and honesty. Sharing of concerns, questions, doubts, thoughts, and feelings is a goal in this area. The teacher should be willing to share

of him/herself in this area, but should make clear, and at times model, the idea that no one is forced to share or participate. The sharing should not be coercive, but rather encouraged. Strategies for building a climate of trust and honesty can be found in a variety of sources, some of which are listed at the end of this paper.

A third step is for the teacher, as the designer of the lesson, to be in touch with the major concerns and interests of his/her students. What are the students concerned about, cognitively and affectively? What are their problems? What are their questions? The concerns and questions may be cognitive and/or affective, and may be discovered in a variety of ways. Again, resources in this area will be listed below.

The teacher must next take an in-depth view of the subject matter or content s/he is teaching. Are there natural linkages to students' lives? Are there, for example, links to questions of identity? Is the problem-solving strategy utilized in a math problem applicable to another area of the student's life? It is to be emphasized here that natural linkages are sought; artificial linkages become affective "hooks" which may draw students into the subject matter but which may result in separate affective and cognitive realms. Students may be able to identify natural linkages.

Once identified, the linkages can be implemented in a variety of ways, depending on the teaching and learning styles of the participants, and upon the goals sought. There are no sure-fire recipes for such implementation. Examples of strategies will be listed for the "basic" subject areas below, and may offer the reader a sense of the possibilities.

Once a lesson is completed, evaluation and feedback may be sought. Because the goals of such con-

fluent lessons may be somewhat different in making the affective component explicit, the strategies for evaluation may be different from the traditional paper and pencil tests. Journals, diaries, individual and group conferences, "I learned" statements, open-ended questionnaires, and self evaluation may be utilized to supplement or even replace other evaluative methods.

It is important that participants in confluent education take note of process--what goes on in a group, what roles individuals play, what feelings participants have about the lesson, group, or self. This process time may be integral in further developing awareness, responsibility, and readiness for further learning.

Listed below are examples of lessons which may be described as "confluent." Additional resources for other subject areas will be identified below.

English and/or Social Studies: Study of the newspaper may involve some of the following activities in addition to the cognitive task of learning about the newspaper.

--Students write news stories, features, etc. based on personal experiences or a real or simulated classroom incident. Skills to be included might be observation skills, listening skills, writing skills, interviewing, formal or creative writing.

--Interviews with other students, teachers or other adults, can involve sharing of experiences, as well as the skills described above.

--"Dear Abby" type columns can deal with students' concerns, and develop cognitive skills. They serve as topics for class discussion; students become aware of others' opinions, similar experiences, etc.

--Editorials can bring out students' views on almost any topic.

--Self obituary can deal with what students hope to have accomplished in their lifetime. What do they want to be remembered for? This activity can look at values and goals of students.

Math: Use open rather than closed questions wherever possible. (An example of a closed question might be: Measure the length of the room and its width, giving your answer to the nearest inch. An example of the same question framed in a more open way: Using as many measuring instruments as you can, find the ratio of the length and width of the room in as many ways as possible. Compare your results with others.) Other ways to work with math would be to do more group work and process what happens in the group, and to make as many problems as possible relevant to some aspect of the student's life.

Science: Science lessons may have affective components, too. After groups do experiments, the class can look at the process by which a group works. Issues of interdependence can be discussed in relation to other problems students face. Awareness can be built by having students use senses of touch, smell, taste, and sound as well as vision. Student feelings about experiments can be discussed and explored. How do science lessons relate to students' lives?

A Cautionary Note

Confluent education is both a philosophy and a practice. Without a theoretical belief in confluent education, it can become just another "gimmick" or fad. The teacher or group leader should always be able to articulate to his/her students the "why" of a lesson and its components. "Why do we have to do

this?" is a common student question. Be ready with an answer you believe in!

It is also important that the group leader or teacher prepare for the experience with students. Often feelings may arise which the teacher is not ready or prepared to deal with. Think about the implications of any lesson which may be taught. What are possible cognitive and affective responses? How can they be handled or dealt with so as not to leave the student frustrated beyond toleration? How can anger be dealt with? How can negative reactions or feelings be utilized as learning experiences?

Teachers interested in learning more about confluent education can find help in print and through human resources available for consultation and training. The greatest resource, however, lies within each committed and responsible teacher: imagination, creativity, flexibility.

ADMINISTRATORS CAN BE HUMANISTIC AND EFFECTIVE

Joseph Dulin*

Humanistic education can only be carried out and applied if it is derived from administrators themselves. Much has been written and spoken about humanistic education, but the real thrust of human relations and understanding can only begin at the top in our school system.

Relating to people in an institutional setting is tough to deal with, because of the bureaucracy and more importantly, because of the differences in the cultural background of those we serve each day in our schools. In order for a humanistic approach to be implemented, the designated leader must plan workshop activities so that staff members can relate to one another in cross-cultural honesty. This humanistic honesty we, as educators, must also carry, to colleagues, students, parents, brothers, sisters, and friends. Our display of humanism and fair-play must be real; it must be sincere.

We administrators, historically, have not been known for our humanistic concern for others. Our task, after all, is to keep the schools open. We do not necessarily deal with anyone, except those on our own level, as human beings. There is a need for the application of affective concepts and methods of administration in the schools today.

There are many problems facing today's administrators: student unrest, teacher demands,

*Joseph Dulin is Director, Roberto Clemente Student Development Center, Ann Arbor Public Schools, Ann Arbor, Michigan.

failure to levy taxes, demands for accountability, and racial strife and violence, to name a few. The educational administrator can no longer be just an administrator. He or she must deal effectively with all of these problems.

The administrator must be a manager, but certainly not on the level of a factory manager. This can only mean one thing: he must deal with human behavior; he cannot be a mechanical boss producing mechanical cars; schools are not factories, military installations, or computers. Being a good manager does not give administrators dictatorial power. It should move them to be concerned about how others think and to provide the opportunity for others to have input into policy-making decisions that effect their lives. The administrator must be aware that the students' concerns, wants, interests, fears, anxieties, joys, frustrations, and other emotions and reactions to the world around them contain the seeds of motivation and non-motivation.

Our lack of understanding of the cultural differences in our society leaves little room for leadership in the basic understanding of man's inhumanity to man. We, as educators, should provide the proper role models of affective leadership in our particular schools and school districts. But political chaos has caused many of us to be ineffective and insensitive in dealing with those who come from different backgrounds and experiences. Administrators must practice what they preach, and their practices should be primary criteria for their promotion to other positions.

We live in an era that is confused and contradictory. It is easy for us to get so caught up in the struggle for survival that we become ineffective in our schools--primarily because we

fail to share our concerns and problems as humans. This has a bearing on our ability to perform our task with feeling and concern for others who live in our confused society. Many times it accounts for the differences in our treatment of other people, in particular those from other races who are present in our schools each day.

On the other hand, the administrator must not be confused with the "miracle worker," though much is expected of him or her. Unfortunately, all administrators do not possess qualifications for all of the roles: as teacher, manager, etc. But the challenge to humanistic educators should be to help change those things that should be changed to make a better, more sensitive society. Through this concerted effort, the fears and ignorance that wrangle and halt progress each day in our schools and classrooms can be eliminated. And simultaneously, teachers will be able to see and feel the humanistic and affective leadership of the administrator.

Even though administrators are supposed to be leaders, teachers cannot stand by and wait for them to lead, for that alone could cause many generations to continue to linger in ignorance. Teachers must take initiative and bring school weaknesses to the attention of administrators, with or without the administrators' consent.

Knowing the difficulties of this proposal, and the planted idea of revolution, I still must cling to the idea that teachers will bring about more meaningful humanistic learnings. This certainly should cause administrators to take another look at themselves. I recognize that this may cause conflict, that teachers may be placed in an awkward

position or that they may jeopardize their very jobs. But we must begin to take that chance, because if ever there was a need for humanity within our schools, the time is now.

One can only guess how many problems would not have occurred if we had been more humane in our schools. From the schools, I believe this humaneness would have spread into our communities, state, and nation.

Much has been said about humaneness in our society and in the future since the election of President Jimmy Carter. Only time will tell, but in the meantime, we educators should seize this time to prepare ourselves to bring humanistic education directly from Plains, Georgia, or Washington, D.C. to the classroom, hallways, gymnasiums, bathrooms, and cafeterias, so that the students will deal more effectively with each other on a people-to-people basis, without regard to race, creed, color, sex, or previous condition of servitude.

The poor, oppressed, mainly urban, mainly minority group students--the crises clientele--show the widespread failure of educators in general to lead students toward the behavior our society considers desirable and acceptable. Let us be aware also that the problems are by no means confined to this group; they effect other groups as well. One of the biggest difficulties or deficiencies in education is the lack of contact with the student, particularly in the administrator-student relationship. Daily happenings in our schools generally seem to students all one way: either all good or all bad. This is also true with the things that happen to them as a result of the little or big hand that we educators lend to them. These cases

or incidents happen daily to the disadvantaged, and we must wonder about their effect and the effect of the attitudes of other individuals and groups on disadvantaged students.

Many teachers and administrators who work with minority students are hungry for ways to make education more meaningful to them. At the same time, we must recognize that there are just as many teacher and administrators who fail us daily--that are making tracks and getting nowhere.

There can be no progress unless we get to those in power and call upon them to recognize and practice those basic survival pieces that make us all human. Certainly, there are no set rules and regulations for getting effective results, but we must continue to search. Perhaps, we can begin by looking into the following areas for causes of irrelevance in education as it relates to the desegragated classroom. No doubt there are others:

1. Inability to match teaching procedures with the child's learning style.
2. Use of methods and teaching materials that ignore the feelings of the minority students.
3. Ignoring the concerns and problems of minority students.
4. Using materials that are poorly related to the minority students' realm of experiences.
5. Ignoring the minority students' environment as it exists in the past, present, and future.
6. Use of teaching strategies that do not adequately point out the differences in racism and sexism as they apply to the various cultures.

The student is constantly questioning himself--"What does it have to do with me?" We, as educators, focus on students' learning styles and experiences. But we must continue to search for a broader concept to reach all students. There must exist within us the challenge to find a solution to the causes of irrelevance in the schools. Unless there is a connecting link between the students, their learning styles, their experiences, and our teaching methods, the aims of education will be mitigated and we shall continue to digress. This also applies to those who are the so-called "leaders": They dispense knowledge, and many times ignorance, to our students, which in turn leads to the violence that exists in our schools each day. Possibly, this violence may be caused indirectly by the administration of the school.

The key to positive and effective interpersonal relationships between students and teachers in the desegregated school and classroom is found in knowing one another. First and foremost knowing oneself, knowing the students, and acting out each situation for the mutual benefit of one another. Many educators are especially good at this and are well known for their ability to get along with students and colleagues. They seem to have a knack for developing positive relationships, their schools seem to thrive on such relationships, and, the students learn. The care of a humane school rests with positive and effective interpersonal relations.

Attached is a very simple philosophy of a school: Roberto Clemente. Our philosophy is the embodiment of hope for a better world tomorrow. We at Clemente deal with reality and life

experiences, particularly when one looks at the total process of a staff of people, educators, who see the need for change in order to bring about a better tomorrow. With two years behind us, we have only begun, hopefully, to bring about quality education for all people. Educators should insist on equality for all students whether they be Appalachian whites, blacks, or other minorities; rich, poor, or middle class; male or female. This is our philosophy. Our goals and objectives are consistent with this philosophy.

We are carrying on a very smooth operation at Clemente because we deal with reality and survival, stressing the necessity of academic skills and the joy of living as brothers and sisters in this country. The task has been difficult and rough, and many thanks are due to our staff and students who have worked together to bring about beauty in life. The honesty and fair play that exist at Clemente are gratification for hard work by the "Clemente Family." The students respect us as people: not blacks against whites and vice versa, not students against teachers, not students against administrators. I am happy to report that at present we do not have any problems in the aforementioned areas. This is because we believe that people must recognize differences in people, and at the same time recognize the human being whose behavior, cultural experiences, and emotional difficulties are not understood.

A better world for the Appalachian whites, blacks, and other minorities lies largely in the hands of us as educators. Perhaps we underestimate our abilities and are threatened as people, but please have no fear: get to the culture and

experience of those who are unknown to you and the code of honesty and trust will prevail. To those of you who are in a position to effect change, we ask your help in assuring that a humanistic education will prevail for all students.

Appendix

ROBERTO CLEMENTE STUDENT DEVELOPMENT CENTER
ANN ARBOR PUBLIC SCHOOLS

Philosophy

The Clemente Center is an educational institution which holds a belief in the dignity of each person, and a respect for diversity within the human family. The Clemente Center aims to provide an atmosphere for growth, intellectually, emotionally, socially and physically, through which the individual is brought to understand accountability for his own talents and development, to himself and his brother, and to use his gifts for the betterment of his community of mankind. Through the guidance of the staff, administration, parents and peers, each student will be encouraged to build within himself a stable set of values which will provide an anchor in a changing world.

II. CROSS CULTURAL COMMUNICATION: A MEANS TO HUMANISTIC DESEGREGATION

THE EFFECTS OF BUREAUCRATIC STRUCTURES UPON THE VERBAL AND NONVERBAL INTERACTION OF MINORITY ADMINISTRATORS

Marcia J. Clinkscales*

Upon addressing the topic of "The Effects of Bureaucratic Structures Upon the Verbal and Nonverbal Interaction Behavior of Minority Administrators," it becomes necessary to give an adequate description of verbal and nonverbal interaction behavior, as well as to provide a definitive analysis of specific terms.

The purpose of this paper will be to (1) examine communication theory as it relates to verbal and nonverbal components; (2) provide a definition of terms, and (3) explore the possible effects and implications of bureaucratic structures on the communication patterns of minority administrators. Thus this paper will explain verbal and nonverbal interaction behavior and illustrate its relevance for minority administrators within the context of bureaucratic organizations by examining cross-cultural research methodologies.

When examining communication as a process we see that communication as a medium is extensive. The process cannot be limited to the reception and transmission of messages, for these are only one part of communication. The communication process is part of a behavioral scientific manifestation, which takes into account numerous variables which penetrate the mechanism of communication.

*Marcia J. Clinkscales, at the time of this presentation, was a communications consultant for the Program for Educational Opportunity, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan.

Thus communication scholars have given attention to formulating methods and models for better understanding the complexities of this system.

This writer does not negate the concept that part of communication is encoding and decoding messages. Or that, as a part of that system, certain ingredients are essential (as the source, the encoder, the message, the channel, the decoder, and the communication receiver) (Berlo 1960). It is only being suggested here that such attributes as language levels, attitudes, cultural variation, and the social status of others within the sociocultural system, place certain restraints on addressing the communicative event. Such considerations often make the interpretation of a given message extremely complex.

In examining the complexity of the communication spectrum, investigators have found that nonverbal communication is an integral part of the communication process. The study of nonverbal communication has become a critical area of investigation. Investigations of nonverbal behavior would include such aspects as paralanguage (which refers to nonlanguage sounds, vocal qualities, pronunciation, and inflection patterns); kinesics (which encompasses the study of bodily movement, posture, and facial expression); interaction behavior; and proxemics.

Significance has been placed on the nonverbal behavior of human communication. Nonverbal expression is an important constituent of verbal interaction. Those two communication elements are interrelated in that both occur either simultaneously or within the context of the given communication.

Recently, much attention has been given to nonverbal interaction behavior. Theorists have realized that in order to understand the entire communication process, both verbal and nonverbal interaction need to be examined. Interaction behavior has been addressed by many behavioral scientists in an effort to explain or define that aspect of human behavior. Lennard and Bernstein (1970) suggest that human interaction provides the medium through which societies and all social systems perform their functions and carry out their purposes. So interaction behavior in this discussion refers to the interchange of ideas, feelings, and information by minority administrators in human interactions within their organizations.

As early as 1872, Darwin established facial and body movement patterns as an area of serious study with the publishing of Expression of Emotions In Man and Animals. Then Sapir (1927) recognized the definite importance of this communication entity by stating:

> ....we respond to gestures with an extreme alertness and, one might say, in accordance with an elaborate and secret code that is written nowhere, known by none, and understood by all. (p. 137)

The importance of nonverbal behavior was examined relatively early by a number of scholars. However, the real impetus for exploring this spectrum did not begin until the 1960s. It became paramount that communication researchers focus their attention on expressive movement and nonverbal behavior. Ray L. Birdwhistell (1963, p. 125), a pioneer in the study of nonverbal

behavior, describes kinesics as "the systematic study of those patterned and learned aspects of body motion which can be demonstrated to have communication value."

In 1971, Mehrabian wrote:

> How is it possible that, despite the absence of any explicit accepted standards as to what certain behaviors mean, people are still able to understand each others' nonverbal communication? Nonverbal behavior primarily involves communication of one's feelings and attitudes. (p. 111)

Conceptually, it is important to understand that verbal and nonverbal behavior function as interacting components. The nonverbal message is closely woven into the verbal message making the separation of these entities virtually impossible. Thus, in an attempt to define nonverbal behavior based on research, Mehrabian (1972) suggests that "nonverbal" is the contribution of our actions rather than of our speech--implicit communication. In a broader sense it includes (a) actions (as distinct from words); (b) subtle or implicit aspects of speech (paralanguage); and (c) goal-directed/intentional and non-goal directed/unintentional transmissions.

Let us now briefly examine the different types of studies that have been conducted in this area. A theoretical explanation of the literature is necessary in order to properly analyze the verbal/nonverbal interaction behavior of minority administrators within formal organizations.

The ensuing discussion will focus on empirical investigations of nonverbal behavior, using a theoretical overview of intercultural research: black-white nonverbal studies.

Considerable research has been conducted in an attempt to examine a variety of instances of nonverbal expressions. The investigations consider postural communication, physical adornment, and facial expression.

In examing postural communication, William James (1932) found that people can read the emotion signified by bodily postures. Subjects of this study were asked to observe a number of body postures and designate the particular emotion being communicated. James found that the subjects demonstrated high accuracy in their judgments.

Ekman (1964) conducted a study in which he found that people can read emotional states through the observation of physical nonverbal behavior with considerable accuracy. Ekman (1965), later discovered that the head gave information about the affect experienced but told relatively little about the intensity of that affect.

Shapiro (1972) conducted a study to assess variability and usefulness of facial and body cues. Thirty subjects viewed seventeen photographs of five counselors. Six were of the whole body, six were of the head, and six were of the body without the head. Shapiro found that the subjects valued facial cues over bodily cues.

Henley (1973) on status and its relationship to touching, indicated that status predicted the acceptability of being touched in a public environment. The higher status of the individual directly correlated with the privilege of being touched in public.

Argyle (1970), in assessing the inferior and superior attitudes of nonverbal and verbal signals, found that females were more receptive to nonverbal cues than were males.

Nonverbal variables that have been assessed for research purposes are widespread. These examples were provided to suggest the heterogeneity of the studies. These research modules will be referred to at a later point in this paper.

Theorists interested in intercultural and cross-cultural communication have assessed the extent to which cultural variables effected nonverbal behavior. The basic ideology of intercultural communication suggests that differing cultures may experience difficulty in communicating due to diverse experiential backgrounds. Thus, culture must be considered an important communication variable. It effects the process of interpreting symbols transmitted by a given source because the two interacting cultures bring different symbols to the communicative event.

Sitaran (1970) suggests that what is an effective communication symbol in one culture could be an obscure gesture in another culture. He further contends that the communication technique that makes a person successful in New York could kill him in New Delhi. The occurence of this situation is based on the individual failing to understand the nature or form of communication across cultural boundaries.

This writer supports the theory that there are cultural differences in nonverbal communication. Eisenberg and Smith (1971) suggest that a great deal of impressionistic evidence supports the notion that ethnic tensions are attributable in some degree to misunderstandings of nonverbal

messages. These authors further contend that in black-white relationships there is a tendency to misunderstand communication by touch.

La France and Mayo (1975), examined the role of gaze direction in black-black and black-white dyadic interactions. The researchers found that differences between the two cultural groups was based on when looking occurs rather than the amount of looking. In later study (1975) by La France and Mayo, researchers observing gaze direction while listening in race-homogenous dyads, found that white listeners gazed at the speaker for significantly more of their listening time than did black listeners.

There are many more studies which suggest cross-cultural differences in nonverbal behavior. Recent attempts have been made to document black nonverbal studies by such theorists as Johnson (1971), and Akerele (1972). Once again, the examples that this writer has provided are an attempt to give an overview of research which will be necessary for analysis in this discussion.

This writer conducted a study (Clinkscales 1973) to identify and describe differences in the nonverbal behavior of Afro-Americans and whites. The investigation attempted to ascertain whether or not certain classes of nonverbal behavior were postively or negatively associated with the level of interpersonal attraction between two interacting subjects of the same race. Fifteen nonverbal variables were assessed:

Facial Pleasantness	Self-Manipulation
Observation	Facial Activity
Forward Lean	Neck Relaxation

Gesticulation	Head Nodding
Orientation	Head Shaking
Sideways Lean	Touching
Object Manipulation	Arm-Position Asymmetry
Rocking Movements	

Results indicated that there are differences in nonverbal behavior when examining interpersonal attraction as a unidimensional construction. The variables of orientation and rocking movements were predictors of attraction for the black sampled population. Whereas, in the white sampled population, head shaking movements, neck relaxation, and facial pleasantness were predictors of attraction. The results further indicate that the nonverbal predictors are in different regions of the body--the body region for blacks and the upper regions (head and face) for whites.

Hence, the research reviewed suggests implications and hypotheses for assessing the behavior of minority administrators in bureaucratic structures: the last section of this paper.

In assessing the effect of bureaucratic structure on verbal and nonverbal interaction behavior of minority administrators, the previous definitive analysis will serve as a guideline in the forthcoming discussion.

In this section, bureaucratic structure is being defined as one organization. Parsons (1960) defines an organization as social units (or human groupings) deliberately constructed and reconstructed to seek specific goals. Corporations, armies, schools, hospitals, churches, and prisons

fall under this description. Parsons further contends that organizations are characterized by divisions of labor, power, and communication responsibilities. The balance of this paper will be based on Parsons' difinition and the word organization will be used in reference to bureaucratic structure.

This writer will advance the argument that (1) the minority administrator will interact differently cross-culturally than he or she will interact intraculturally both with individuals that are a part of his or her staff, and with individuals that are outside of his or her staff but are a part of the governing organization. (2) This dissimilarity of interaction behavior will be manifested verbally and nonverbally. Hence, the interaction pattern will vary with race or ethnic derivation serving as the outcome variable and with verbal/nonverbal communication acting as the resultant mechanism. The above assumptions are based on the communication variables of interpersonal self-disclosure and conflict. These variables were selected because of their frequent occurance within an organizational unit.

The emerging questions now become, "What is self-disclosure?" and, "How does it optimally function within an organizational unit?"

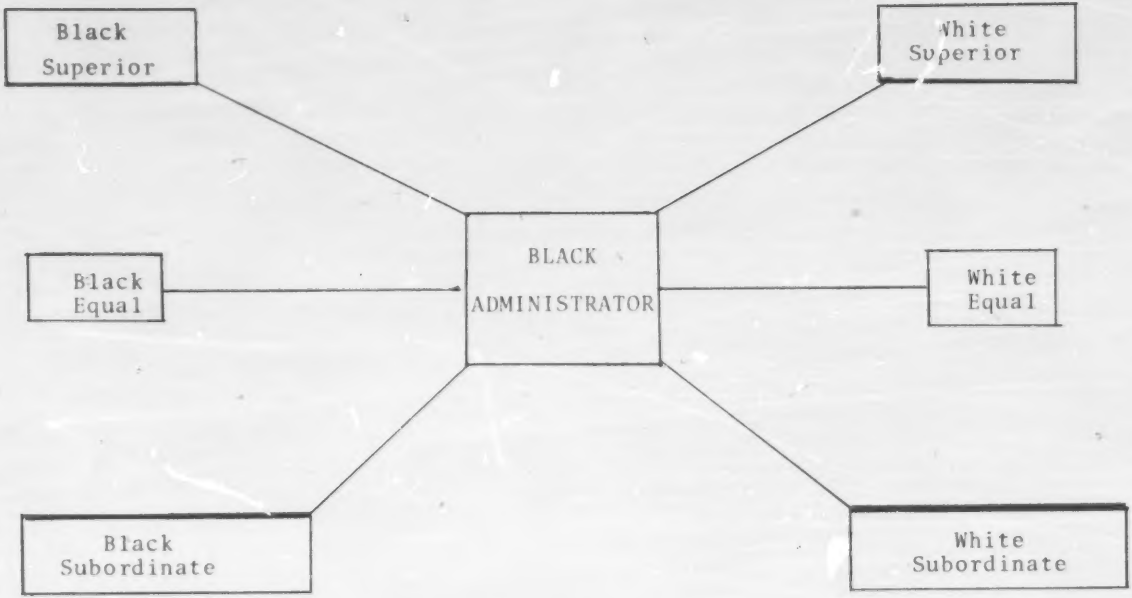
Sidney Jourard, notable scholar in the area of self-disclosure, suggests that self-disclosure is the "act of revealing personal information to others." Olmsted (1974), states that self-disclosure is:

....the uncovering or releasing of information concerning self; to admit mistakes and inadequacies; ...the opposite of holding back and ambivalence; an acceptance of the risk of being known; a giving up of the preoccupation with being secure.

Given these definitions one could presume that in the arena of administration, the minority administrator has the unique responsibility of coordinating and delegating the affairs of the department. In so doing, he or she must communicate particular information on three levels, (1) to those who have equal stature; (2) to those who are subordinate; and (3) to those who are superior in positional status. (Refer to Diagram I). How the minority administrator self-discloses specific communications will later effect the climate of work productivity. Olmsted (1974) suggests that part of self-disclosing is the ability "to admit mistakes and inadequacies" in the releasing of information. In posing a hypothetical example, one could assume that situations will occur where it becomes strategically important for Person A (the minority administrator) to disclose information to fellow employees (Persons B, C, D). The method that is selected becomes of prime importance.

Cross-culturally, can Person A admit a mistake or inadequacy? Is Person A preoccupied with positional stature? Does Person A allow herself or himself the opportunity of adding a human quality to his or her interactions with employees? And further, does a lack of self-disclosure stagnate the development of a flourishing organization? Does the administrator know when and when not to self-disclose for the best interest of the company?

DIAGRAM I


Black Superior
White Superior
BLACK ADMINISTRATOR
Black Equal
White Equal
Black Subordinate
White Subordinate

Or is it apparent that self-disclosure is seldom utilized creating a communication barrier within the department?

Another important question is whether or not the minority administrator is able to self-disclose with the three levels of personnel that were suggested earlier in this discussion. And further, does the variable of race effect the minority administrator's ability to self-disclose? That is, when a black administrator communicates to a white equal, subordinate, or supervisor, does the interactional behavior change, based on the level of the white interactant? And does the black administrator become aware of the race (white) of his listener or respondent?

This writer proposes that the black administrator will reflect upon the ideological factors that govern racism. For example, perhaps congnitively the notion emerges that, "I as an administrator should not self-disclose to whites." This notion could be based on historical data or experience in relation to black-white interactions. And the next question that could occur is, "If I do self-disclose, has a climate of trust been built so that I know the information is being used in a productive manner?"

Historically, in many circumstances, blacks have had to assume a behavior of accommodation when interacting with whites. Kochman (1972) asserts that through accommodation many blacks became adept at concealing and controlling their emotions, and at assuming a variety of postures. In view of the racist society that exists, does racism affect the ability to self-disclose and trust in black-white encounters? Is there a degree of superficiality that exists within this

interaction? And if so, to what extent or degree does this superficial atmosphere effect the productivity of the work environment?

Certainly, there is no absolute answer that can be given without immeasurable research. However, much credence should be given to this philosophical issue. This writer suggests that there is a certain amount of paranoia that exists in relation to these variables in black-white interaction dyads. And these variables occur consciously and unconsciously. In an effort to establish effective patterns of communication, it would seem necessary that these variables be adequatley assessed within an organization in terms of their positive or negative effect.

Intraculturally (the situation of a black administrator communicating to a black equal, subordinate, or superior), the interactional factors could conceivably change. People of the same national, ethnic, or religious group tend to be better judges of one another than persons who are outside of that group (Patton & Griffin). This concept grows out of the theory that persons of similar backgrounds have a shared system of commonalities. A black administrator could assume that because the black equal, subordinate, or superior are of his same race, he or she will better understand the administrator's efforts based on their shared ethnic congruence--to the extent that they have similar experiential backgrounds the issue of racism on an intracultural level does not effect their relationship. This assumption could perhaps be true, but other variables, such as power and influence, who has and who does not, could also be detrimental to a wholesome relationship, and effect the work

environment.

The concept of conflict is a part of any organizational structure. Boulding (1962) asserts that:

> Conflict is a situation of competition in which the parties are aware of the incompatibility of potential future positions and in which each party wishes to occupy a position that is incompatible with the wishes of the other. In an actual conflict situation there must be awareness and there must be incompatible wishes and desires. (p.5)

The management of resolution of conflict take on a variety of philosophical approaches. The options are to discount it, to internalize it, or to reconcile the conflict. Whether there is management or resolution of conflict will be based on the investment in or importance of the relationship.

Cross-culturally, in black-white relationships, the nature of conflict is quite complex. Here again the variable of race or racism penetrates the very fabric of resolution. Questions such as: "Did the black administrator commit a particular act because he or she was practicing racism towards whites, or was the mandate given by the black administrator out of what seemed to be functionally appropriate for the organization?"

In examining the reverse relationship, the black administrator can wonder if the white equal, subordinate, or superior is acting simply because he or she is a black administrator.

Thus, in dealing with conflict, the black administrator and white interactants are dealing with both race and culture and the extent to which these effect the conflict. This writer suggests that in most instances it is difficult to lay the issue of culture aside. There are cultural differences in addition to racial differences that will inevitably effect black-white interactions.

Interracial conflict is not a new development within our society. Blacks and whites in Western society have long been involved in cultural misunderstandings. These misunderstandings have been based on prejudicial beliefs, attitudes, and values about Afro-American culture in the dominant Anglo-Saxon culture. (Here again, the principles of conflict may change in intracultural interactions, and the variables could be associated with power and influence.) Hence, our major concern is the extent or degree to which cultural misunderstandings stagnate the development of a multicultural organization.

It was established earlier that nonverbal expression is an important constituent of verbal interaction. When cultural variables effect verbal interactions between cultures, they are also likely to result in misunderstandings of nonverbal behavior. Lack of knowledge of nonverbal cross-cultural behaviors is an additional dimension to understanding the process of intercultural communication.

Much of the earlier reviewed literature suggests that cultural differences exist nonverbally between cultures. Let us examine Diagram I in an attempt to explain cross-cultural nonverbal behavior. The following nonverbal variables will

be discussed: eye contact, bodily postures, and proxemic behavior.

La France and Mayo found that gaze direction as well as time spent gazing at the interactant while listening, was different for black and white subjects. It has generally been assumed by the dominant culture that if a person is listening, or attentive, he or she will look at the speaker. However, La France and Mayo's study showed that this is not necessarily the case. Within black culture often times black subjects were not looking at one another, but they were listening to what was being communicated. Thus, in the case of a black administrator and a white equal, subordinate, or superior employee, if at any time sufficient eye contact is not maintained, the white employee could interpret this behavior as disinterested or inattentive. Obviously, this nonverbal mannerism by blacks is not the rule in every situation. But since much of nonverbal behavior is unconscious, it is conceivable that the above behavior could occur. If the behavior were interpreted negatively by the white employee, this could present a barrier in effective communication. The judgment could be made unknown to the black administrator, and result in future communication difficulties.

In the study conducted by Clinkscales (1975), it was found that differences in black-white nonverbal behavior were found in different regions of the body. Rocking movements and orientation (different positions of the shoulders) were predictive of attraction for the black sample. Whereas, facial pleasantness, head shaking, and neck relaxation were predictors for the white sampled population. Many research studies support

the notion that the head and facial areas are important indicators of nonverbal behavior for white culture. Concurrently Cooke (1972); Johnson (1971); Akerele (1972); Williams (1972; and Horton (1967) have found that bodily movements were more indicative of Afro-American nonverbal behavior. It should be noted that much of the literature about nonverbal behavior has been predominantly about white culture. The upper regions of the body were of particular significance. Thus, when researching Afro-Americans, researchers and theorists have found that some of the emphasis has shifted from the upper region to the lower region of the body.

This data would suggest a divergence in nonverbal expressions between the two racial groups. Johnson (1971) hypothesizes that the historical polarization of the black population from other Americans produced some differences in nonverbal behavior within black culture. He further contends that nonverbal patterns in Afro-American culture could be a result of former African patterns or of the indigenous conditions of black Americans. Hence, when the black administrator interacts with white employees. Whites may not be in tune with the administrator's nonverbal mannerisms. Cultural conflict and misunderstandings nonverbally often inhibit the growth and development of multicultural relationships (see the section on black-white studies).

These problems presumably do not occur when assessing intracultural relationships. Afro-Americans have always had to function bi-culturally. Thus, they may be familiar with many of the behavioral mannerisms within white culture.

Differences in proxemic behavior have been assessed by Rosegrant and McCloskey (1975). White interviewees established greater interpersonal distance from Afro-American interviewers than any other combination. Difference in proxemic spatiality could also effect the cross-cultural dyad of the black administrator and white employee.

It must be stressed here that not all black administrators will exhibit differences from whites in nonverbal behavior. However, it must also be pointed out that if differences in behavior are observed in black Americans, it is not defective in nature, but possibly a manifestation of a different cultural style.

Interaction between cultures is virtually an art in effective communication. It is a process whereby the existing interactants must take time to respond to the verbal and nonverbal stimuli. Intercultural or cross-cultural communication is often more complex than intracultural because the other culture becomes an additional aspect of the communication process (refer to section on verbal communication). Different backgrounds often impose divergent interpretations of actions exhibited by either cultural group.

These misinterpretations can lead to division between the cultural groups, rather than movement toward congruence in instituting better communication skills.

This discussion is not conclusive; obviously it only touches upon this intricate process. However, this theoretical analysis was provided in an attempt to penetrate the communication variables that often occur within an organizational unit.

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CROSS CULTURAL COMMUNICATIONS

Margaret Lorraine Dancy*

Breaking Through Images

My name is Margaret Lorraine Dancy. I repeat, my name is Margaret Lorraine Dancy. Yes, you now know my name, but do you really know who I am, or do I really know who you are? Can we get behind the surface details of accent, hair style, age, clothing and skin color so that you can perceive the real me, and I can perceive the real you, and thus, you can understand my intended message and I can understand yours?

Certainly, we must remember that real communication means breaking through imaginary images. As we seek to break through some of these images, let us keep in mind: "What counts in life is not so much the facts, but the manner in which we see and interpret them."[1] Thus, in cross-cultural communications it is particularly our pre-conceived images that cause difficulty: What is our image of a child who is poor? What is our image of a child from a Mexican-American background? What is our image of a black parent? I repeat, real communication means breaking through images. Only then can real communication take place across cultural lines.

In this presentation, we will examine significant components in effective cross-cultural communications. Webster's dictionary defines communication as a process by which meanings are exchanged between individuals through a common system of symbols. A

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small key word which can easily be overlooked in this definition is "common," as in "common system of symbols." This small word reminds us that the person with whom we wish to communicate must utilize the same symbols we use if our messages are to be correctly decoded. In other words, we must raise the question: Do we share a common system of symbols with our pupils so that effective communication can take place? Communication implies that a message has reached its intended destination and has been correctly decoded. To communicate cross-culturally, however, is even more involved.

First, we must deal with images. As we focus on effective cross-cultural communications, I would suggest that we highlight this comment: "To achieve understanding, we need to want it."[2] In other words, remember that no matter how much we may learn intellectually about persons in another culture, we must want to communicate with persons from that culture in order for effective communication to become a realization. The above principle must underlie everything else which is mentioned here, or we run the risk of engaging in a fruitless intellectual exercise.

One of my favorite authors on the subject of communication is the Swiss-born and French-speaking psychiatrist, Paul Tournier. Paul Tournier relates a story which alludes to a cross-cultural encounter with an American doctor from New York whom he had a chance to meet: "He (the American doctor) immediately impressed me as most likeable. Yet we had quite a problem in understanding each other because I speak only a few words in English, and he but a few words in French! Even so, we managed to get through to one another for both of us most ardently wanted to."[3] This, indeed, is the key that unlocks that door to cross-cultural understanding in the

classroom--we must want to communicate effectively with our students.

Verbal communication is a special problem. Middle-class America, in particular, seems to have been trained that talking equals communication (T=C). This could hardly be further from the truth. There is, indeed, much talking in America, but alas, much of it is falling on deaf ears--not because our ears cannot hear, but because too often we have chosen not to hear. Tournier calls these "dialogues of the deaf." He says: "We must be reminded that, the first condition for mutual understanding is the desire for, the seeking after and the willing of that understanding....This basic attitude toward understanding is rarer than we think. Listen to all the conversations of our world, those between nations...They are for the most part dialogues of the deaf. Each one speaks primarily in order to set forth his own ideas...in order to enhance himself..."[4] Let us then endeavor to break through these images as we seek to achieve understanding as to what cross-cultural communications is all about.

Sociolinguistics As a Tool to Interpret Communication Cross-Culturally

We will derive our model for discussing cross-cultural communications from the field of sociolinguistics. Sociolinguistics is a relatively new discipline. This field has the tools to interpret communication cross-culturally. Sociolinguistics is a branch of linguistics, while linguistics is a study of languages and their structure. Sociolinguistics takes the study of language structure a step further by studying language in its social context. This new

discipline has links with the fields of anthropology, social psychology and sociology.

In the book Language and Cultural Diversity, this observation is made:

> Although sociolinguistics is a relatively new area of study, and its research techniques and concepts still in the developmental stage, the significance of its findings to education is already enormous, for sociolinguistic conflict in the classroom is one of the most potent sources of problems in cross-cultural communications between teachers and students. Many misunderstandings arise over the intent of messages when these are sent and received in different dialects or languages. And institutional depreciation of students' speech patterns both prevents an adequate evaluation of their verbal ability and helps alienate them from the teacher and the goals of education...Spanish detention and whippings for speaking Navajo still haunt many schools, serving as a reminder of the traditional attitude of the dominant Anglo majority toward the education of minority groups.[5]

Indeed, there is a need to determine how the school's language code conflicts or agrees with the child's language code in interpreting messages.

Hymes' Interactionist's Model of Language and Social Life

In analyzing components of cross-cultural communications, we will look at the Interactionist's Model of Communication which was developed by Dell

Hymes, an anthropologist-linguist at the University of Pennsylvania. This model views language within the social context.[6] Therefore, one begins the analysis with a social entity, rather than a linguistic unit. This social entity is the speech community. The concept of the speech community will be further analyzed later in this discourse as this concept is vital to the Interactionist's Model and cross-cultural communications.

Language Field and Speech Field - Let us now examine some fundamental concepts in the Interactionist's model of cross-cultural communications. The concepts, language field and speech field are cornerstones of the Interactionist's Model. These two factors, language field and speech field, intertwine. Language field can be defined as a area delimited by one's repertoire of varieties of a language or languages. In other words, our language field would be those languages, or standard or non-standard varieties within a language, which we can use for verbal expression. For you and me, the language or languages we know constitute our language fields.

Hymes writes of this example of language field: "In the case of German, Czesch and Austrian natives, the Czech knows no German, so he is in a different language field from the German speaker, while the Austrian who knows German would be in the same language field as the German speaker."[7]

Here in the United States both blacks and whites speak a particular variety of the English language. There are both standard and non-standard varieties of English, just as there are standard and non-standard varieties for all languages. Indeed, the standard English-speaking teacher in the schools can usually understand the English of his or her black pupils, even if this variety of English is non-standard. Also, such children can usually understand the teach-

er's variety of English. This is because the teacher and the child would belong to the same language field. Yet we shall see that a common language field is far from enough for effective cross-cultural communications. This two-pronged concept also calls for consideration of one's speech field.

Speech field is defined as being delimited by one's repertoire of patterns of speaking. This term refers to that area which shares rules of speaking for such social contexts as greetings, accepting or offering favors, giving commands or deciding what should be said next in a conversation. Rules of speaking would be those ways in which speakers associate particular message forms with particular settings and activities.

Consider Hungary, Austria and southern Germany, as we again use an illustration from abroad. These countries would be considered a speech field as there are shared speaking rules among these contiguous language groups. In other words, such speech rules as the rules for greeting one another would be the same in each area. (Ex. Such rules consider: In a speech situation, does the older person speak first? Is only one word sufficient for a greeting?) Thus, though the Hungarian's language may differ from that spoken in Austria, a Hungarian would feel at home in Austria within the social context of the communicative situation.

Much closer to home, the speech field of urban, inner-city black youth might just include New York's Harlem, as well as Los Angeles' Watts area. Here the rules of speaking in the social context would probably have wide agreement. Thus, the rules for greeting ("Give me some skin," "What's happenin' man?") would be similar in Harlem or Watts. Rules

for offering favors or making requests would be the same also.

Yet these same inner-city black youth may not be very familiar with the speech rules of white middle-class America just a few blocks away. More specifically, black children may be unfamiliar with the rule of speaking in middle class America which avoids conflict in educational settings through the use of the extended message form. Rather, the teacher whose speech field differs from this pupil's speech field misinterprets the student's precise message. Note this example: A teacher emphatically tells two students to go to the library and check out particular books. Student A (who has no intention of going to the library) responds: "I don't think I would care to get a book from the library today, but I might check out a book tomorrow." Student B (who also has no intention of going to the library) responds: "I will not." Here we have examples of children from two different speech fields. Student A belongs to the same speech field as the teacher so he is aware of the extended message form which would be a part of the speech rule for disagreement within an educational setting. Student B's speech field, on the other hand, differs from that of the teacher so his message gets misinterpreted as impolite. In his classic work, The Logic of Non-Standard English, William Labov has noted that the differences in the use of mitigating forms between blacks and whites in the educational setting has often caused misunderstanding. Labov observes that the child caught in this cross-fire needs to understand the highly developed forms of language used to avoid conflict between individuals in face-to-face encounters.[8] To Labov's statement I would add that the teacher also needs to put forth effort to understand the precise message

form of such a student. Such a message need not be intended to be impolite.[2] Indeed, the child simply may not know the school's speech rule for disagreement which calls for the extended message form. Therefore, Student B and his teacher belong to different speech fields. Certainly rules for speaking in the social context in some black communities may be radically different from the speaking rules in the social context in the white community.

It is my contention that the failure of educators to understand this important sociolinguistic principle as to the difference between language field and speech field has caused much cross-cultural misunderstanding. The child caught in the cross-fire between different speech fields within the educational setting either becomes withdrawn or remains in continued verbal conflict. Thus, the child could be failed, not because he lacks ability, but because the child does not use the mitigating forms of the school's speech field.

We have always assumed that if a person spoke English we could understand him or her. However, we must remember that we understand his language, but not necessarily the rules of speaking he is using.

The rules which govern speech are unconscious. This means that the rules for our particular speech field are below the level of awareness. Thus, we do not even realize when we are applying a particular rule of speaking. These rules include rules for greetings, asking directions, making a point of emphasis or making a request. Thus, I could not know all the subtleties of Mexican-American communication--such as when to speak, when not to speak, how loudly to speak, when to speak in a friendly tone or when to speak in an angry tone--no matter how much Spanish I had learned unless I had taken time to learn the

rules for speaking as well. Indeed, a shared language field is not enough for effective cross-cultural communications. What then makes for effective cross-cultural communications? Effective cross-cultural communications must merge one's language field and speech field into a speech network.

Speech Network - Speech network is the term which refers to specific linkages of persons through shared varieties and speaking rules across communities. It represents the total range of communities within which a person's knowledge of varieties and speaking rules potentially enables him to move communicatively. Indeed, a teacher's speech network should include not only the minority child's language but also the rules of speaking which this child brings with him or her to a communicative situation. Likewise, the minority child who knows the language and rules of speaking for "uptown" (his own turf), as well as "downtown" (the middle-class business community) is communicating effectively within a speech network.

What is your speech network? We must assess our values, self-concept, roles, political involvements in order to determine our speech network. Not surprisingly, we will find our speech network is narrow and limited culturally. Few of us really have attempted to seriously understand those who use very different patterns of speaking.

Speech Community - A speech network is composed of a number of different speech communities. What then is a speech community? A speech community is a community of human beings sharing rules for the conduct and interpretation of speech and rules for the interpretation of at least one linguistic variety. Both conditions are essential.

In the desegregated school, problems in communication arise, not because children are poorer, or have

working mothers, etc., but because there may be two different speech communities interacting with different rules of speaking. Suppose a new student entered your classroom from a West European country, such as France. This French child already shares the same basic speech field as American children. Rules for greetings and asking requests are similar. Thus, the child from France only has to learn a new language in order to facilitate her adjustment. I contend that it is the shared speech field (rules of speaking) that has helped make it easier for many persons of a West European background to assimilate in the American middle-class. A person with a West European background entered the United States with only another language to learn, namely English. Such a person already shared most of the rules of speaking--rules for politeness, sarcasm and anger are all expressed similarly in these European communities. The world is getting "smaller." Thus, cross-cultural problems will not be resolved just by learning the language of another culture. Rather we will need knowledge as to how to get a message correctly interpreted in that culture. This is especially significant as we communicate with non-Western European cultural groups, such as cultural groups from Asia, the Middle-East, and Africa.

Speech Situation - Another component in the Interactionist's Model of communication is the speech situation. Speech situations are those situations within the speech community associated with or marked by the absence of speech. Within the American School, speech situations would include the reading period, music period, assemblies, recess time, lunch time, play time after school, scout meetings and parent teacher meetings. Speech situations incorporate varied opportunities for persons to talk or not talk.

Speech Event - Within a speech situation, we can narrow down specific speech events. A speech event occurs within the speech situation and is governed by rules. Thus, a group reading period is a speech situation. Yet, the teacher's conversation with a particular child as she or he assists the child with difficult words is a speech event.

As we summarize our analysis of speech situations and speech events, we can then note that we pay little attention to such communicative details as who speaks first, whether our mother's voice is loud or very soft when she calls us. Such factors do not usually operate at the conscious level. Yet, the culturally different child must learn the rules of speaking for many speech events within his classroom. He must learn the rules for a request to be "excused," rules as to the degree of loud vocal tones permissible in the lunchroom, the rule regarding tattling on a student after a fight at recess and many other rules.

From this discussion it now should be evident that for effective cross-cultural communications we must learn not only the variety of a language that our children speak, but also we should be aware of the importance of learning their rules or patterns of speaking as well.

Finally, all that we have mentioned about cross-cultural communications is merely an intellectual exercise unless we want to understand others. We must care deeply for the children who are entrusted to us for their education:

> If we speak with the tongues of experts and consultants and have not love, we will have nothing but the noise of our own voices and clanging of our pet ideas. And if we develop new methods, and write new curriculum and learn

new techniques, and if we understand all about group dynamics, so as to remove all problems of schedule and discipline, but have not love, we are nothing. If we give all that has happened before, and deliver ourselves to practice a new program, but have not love, we gain nothing.

Love never ends; as for conferences, they will pass away, as for camps they will cease, as for leadership training schools, they will pass away. For our methods are imperfect and our plans are imperfect; and when the perfect comes the imperfect will pass away. When I was first recognized as an expert and a consultant I tried to cease being enamored with myself and speak out of humility. For now we see ourselves reflected in our own eyes, but then face to face. And there will come a time when we may be blessed to see the heart of what we are doing, and then we shall fully understand. So methods, techniques, group dynamics, regimentation, bell ringing, small group experiences, wholesome recreation--there is all this and much more we could suggest, but greater than all of these is love.[9]

Notes

[1]Paul Tournier, To Understand Each Other (Atlanta, Gerogia: John Knox Press, 1974), p. 26.

[2]Ibid., p. 8.

[3]Ibid.

[4]Ibid., p. 8-9.

[5]Roger Abrahams and Rudolph Troike, Language and Cultural Diversity in American Education (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1972), pp. 141-142.

[6]Dell Hymes, "Models of the Interaction of Language and Social Life," in John Gumperz and Dell Humes (eds.) Directions in Sociolinguistics (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1972), p. 39.

[7]Ibid., p. 55.

[8]William Labov, The Study of Nonstandard English (Urbana, Illinois: National Council of Teachers of English, 1974), p. 51.

[9]William C. Howland, Jr., American Baptist Newsletter, Fall 1976.

III. IMPLEMENTING HUMANISTIC EDUCATION IN THE CLASSROOM

SOCIAL LITERACY TRAINING

Alfred Alschuler*

Editor's note: This and the following two articles have been extracted from A Primer for Social Literacy Training: Liberating Approaches to the Discipline Problem, distributed by the Social Literacy Project, University of Massachusetts, Amherst. It is not copyrighted and permission to reproduce is granted with the understanding that it will not be sold above the cost of reproduction.

A. Philosophic background

From the outset of the Social Literacy Project five years ago, we have been guided by the philosophy and methods of Paulo Freire, a Brazilian educator, who, in the early 1960's developed a new and apparently effective method of adult literacy training (Freire, 1970 (a), 1970 (b), 1973, undated). In six to eight weeks, 80 percent of the participants had become functionally literate. Based on this success, the Brazilian government sponsored a massive national literacy campaign, until they realized the deeper intentions of Freire's training. At that point Freire was exiled, and the government transformed the program into a large-scale effort to politically socialize and domesticate the illiterate masses.[1]

1. The nature of literacy

For Freire, literacy is more than simply learning to read and write the conventional idiom. It is a

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much broader problem-solving process involving naming problems, analyzing the causes, and acting to solve the problems. For instance, quantity is a fundamental aspect of reality. In math classes students learn the names for different quantities (numbers) and how to analyze basic relationships between these quantities (more than, less than, included in). They also learn ways of solving problems, (multiplication, division, subtraction, addition, raising to a power, solving equations, etc). Not only can students play with numbers divorced from reality, they can apply these names, analytic methods, and problem-solving methods, to reality. They are literate with numbers every time they name the reality of their bank account balance, analyze the upcoming additions and subtractions, and solve a financial problem by either saving or spending. Without this basic numeracy (being literate with numbers) we would be less powerful in solving all kinds of problems from carpentry to planning more adequate transportation facilities using census data. Numeracy is powerful. So are chemical literacy, physical literacy, and biological literacy. All grant the literate person power to name, analyze, and solve problems. From this perspective most people in schools are socially illiterate. There is no shared formal vocabulary for naming problematic social relations, no established methods of analyzing the causes of interpersonal conflicts, and no regularly practiced, effective methods of solving the basic social problems. The fundamental purpose of our project has been to increase social literacy in and through the process of education.

2. Stages of literacy

Freire has identified three developmental stages or syndromes in the way people name, analyze, and

attempt to solve problems. It is here that the radical goals of his training became clear to the Brazilian government. In the first state of literacy, conforming to the situation, individuals are "submerged" in reality. Only basic obvious survival problems are named: poor health, lack of land or money, etc. The causes of their situation seem magical: fate, chance, luck, or God. Little, if any action is taken to change their situation. "Living with the situation," resignation, passive acceptance, and waiting characterize the "conforming" stage. Individuals at this stage of literacy pose no threat to governments since the system is seen as inevitable and proper, no matter how painful or oppressive that government may be.

At the next stage of literacy, reforming individuals, problems are seen and named in individuals who deviate from their expected or ideal roles, e.g., "I am poor because I am not educated." "I was kicked out of school because I broke some rules," or "I was kicked out of school because the principal had it in for me." The implicit, naive assumption is made that if individuals reform, everything will be fine because the economic or political or educational system is basically good. At this stage individuals actively support the system by blaming individuals and by attempting to reform themselves or others rather than blaming the system. Obviously, people at this stage of literacy also pose no serious threat to the system (the government, the school, etc.), since they are trying to change imperfect people rather than to correct an unjust system.

At the third stage of literacy, transforming the system, individuals are critical of the system, see their problems as caused by unjust, inequitable, or inhumane rules, policies, or norms that victimize them,

e.g., racism and discriminatory policies in school are seen as the causes of disproportionate exclusion of minority students. Inappropriate subject matter, teaching practices, and dysfunctional disciplinary procedures are seen as the primary causes of poor academic performance rather than deficits in students. When the problems are named and analyzed in this way, groups of individuals collaboratively attempt to transform those rules, policies, norms or laws rather than passively conforming or naively attempting to reform themselves and others. To the degree that the system itself sanctions collaborative transformation (i.e., democratic participation in problem-solving and decision-making) the existence of this stage of literacy poses little threat. However, in Brazil during the 1960's, Freire's attempts to democratize the illiterate populace by facilitating their emergence from the conforming stage to the reforming stage and then to the transforming stage was not an acceptable goal.[2]

3. Literacy training

Freire's literacy training consists of four steps (Freire, 1973). (a) Entry: A team of outside individuals arrange with a group, school, community, or organization to study that group's thought, language, and actions. This is a voluntary association in which both the outsiders and the group agree to seek common goals of increased literacy. The outsiders then spend time becoming as deeply immersed in studying the specific group's existence as is feasible. (b) Naming: In discussion sessions the outsiders and leaders of the group attempt to define the central conflict in the situation.[3] This conflict is manifested in literally hundreds of specific ways in daily life. Typically it involves one group of people who have greater power or status than another

group. For instance, Freire claims that THE central conflict of our epoch is domination. (c) Analyzing: When this central conflict and its many manifestations have been named, the group analyzes the causes of the conflicts. There is an attempt to understand the system causes. (d) Solving: Literacy training then re-presents to others the names of important conflicts as problems to be understood, which, when the causes are comprehended, will lead to collaborative action to resolve the conflicts. For example, in Recife, Brazil, "Favela" (slum) was named a central conflict experienced by all the urban poor in that group. Not only did they learn how to read and write this word and its linguistic variations, they explored the systematic causes of living in a slum and group action necessary to improve their living conditions.

The content of literacy training is not prescribed in a fixed curriculum for all groups and situations. The central conflicts, words, causes, and actions are drawn out of each situation. Traditional packaged curricula and prescribed objectives are appropriate ways of maintaining people in the conforming and reforming stages. But, according to Freire, only through problem-posing, true dialogue, and collaborative problem solving do groups move towards democratic participation in transforming the problems in their social situation.

B. The history and nature of social literacy training

1. Entry into the Springfield schools

In 1971, three members of the University of Massachusetts School of Education in Amherst began a long-term series of consultations in the Springfield School System with the sanction of the Superintendent, Dr. John Deady. We chose this "social situation" because it was the urban desegregated school system

closest to the University. However, building initial trust and collaboration was neither quick nor assured. Traditional city-university differences had been reinforced by several previous failures to sustain cooperation. University members had spread the word that the Springfield School System was hopelessly conservative, when in fact, the University was quite insensitive to the constant need for control and security. The school system staff condemned University members as quixotic radicals, when in fact the city was insensitive to the needs for major improvements.

A trusting collaborative relationship was built on the agreement that initially we would spend up to two years, if necessary, "doing" nothing but attempting to identify the central conflicts in the school system. We concentrated our efforts in the one junior high school with the highest percent of black students (then 38 percent in a student population of 1,200) and a principal reputed to be the most innovative and to have the greatest fortitude.[4] We observed and talked with students, faculty, administrators, and parents in classrooms, bus stops, hallways, washrooms, cafeterias, athletic fields, and guidance offices. We spent several weeks sitting in the front office observing activities in this organizational nerve center and several days following one group of students from class to class through the day, as well as remaining in one classroom while different classes passed in and out. Finally, R. Bruce Irons examined all referrals to the front office during the Fall semesters of 1971 and 1972 to seek clues to important problems of conflict.[5]

2. Naming the central conflict: the battle for students' attention, called "the discipline problem"

We conducted several workshops and held weekly discussion groups with members of the social studies department. As a result of several thousand hours of informal study and group reflection, we identified "the battle for students' attention" as the central conflict. In this junior high school, most activities are designed to capture students' attention and focus it on the instructional material: truant officers, bells, hall passes, tardy notes, roll taking, hall monitoring, assignments, coaxing, cajoling, threatening, punishing, rewarding, P.A. announcements ("May I have your attention?"...).

In competition with this impressive array of powerful external forces, there are a number of forces inside the students, an array of "inner concerns:" clothes, "face" (pride, desire for recognition, self-concept), friendships, "playing the dozens" (the ancient game of mutual insult), active student resistance (such as the parade to the pencil sharpener all during class), and passive resistance (daydreaming and unashamed dozing).

In order to assess who's winning this battle for students' attention, we developed a measure of Mutually Agreed-upon Learning Time (MALT) (Appendix 3a). In most classes the battle is a stand-off. Only a small number of classes we observed have MALT scores above fifty percent.

We decided that the best name for this continuing battle for students' attention is the "discipline problem" because the subject matter (discipline), the relationship with the teacher (disciple-ship), the means that encourage students to regulate their own behavior (self-discipline), and disciplinarian activity are all failing to sustain students' attention to

the instructional material. In other words, the first purpose of more relevant subject matter, improved teacher-student relationships, greater student self-regulation, and more appropriate disciplinarian practices, is to increase attention to learning.

The discipline problem is the central conflict in this, and numerous other junior high schools. Clearly it reflects "the fundamental conflict of our epoch--domination" in at least two ways. First, while the vast majority of specific discipline conflicts involve both students and a teacher, only students are punished, referred, detained, suspended, expelled, or excluded. Second, our own data is consistent with national norms reported by the Children's Defense Fund (School Suspensions, 1975) that the burden of punishment for discipline conflicts falls disproportionately on black students, compared to white students. The discipline problem is central, also, in the sense that it is a prime cause of other problems, e.g. suspensions, lost learning time, dehumanizing labeling, subsequent juvenile delinquency.

If only the consequences of the discipline problem are treated, e.g. reducing suspension, then the "cure" of a symptom could actually intensify the central conflict. For instance, executive or legal fiat could reduce suspensions by simply prohibiting them for anything other than "dangerous offenses." (In Springfield, "assaults" accounted for only 14 percent of all long-term suspensions in 1974-75. The remainder involved non-violent interpersonal conflicts and violations of school rules). While this would reduce the supension-symptom, just as aspirin reduces the temperature accompanying disease, it would increase the stress and conflict within schools by taking away one option available to administrators for cooling off hot situations. Certainly there need to be addi-

tional constructive alternatives to suspensions, but ultimately, the need for suspensions and the alternatives must be reduced by reducing the number of referrals. This in turn requires a reduction in the amount of discipline conflict in the classroom. Or, put positively, solutions to the central conflict must transform the battle for students' attention into mutually agreed-upon, meaningful learning, and respectful, collaborative human relationships for all people in classrooms.

3. Analyzing the causes: discipline games

We have attempted to analyze the causes of the discipline problem from a system-blame (transforming) rather than a person-blame (reforming) perspective.[6] Specifically, the systematic battle for students' attention can be construed as a game, a contest between educators and students to focus students' attention in competing ways. Just as the rules and roles of football "cause" certain types of behavior to occur on the field while prohibiting other types of behavior, so too the rules of attention-getting games in school "cause" people in different roles to behave in predictable ways. The analysis of behavior as a function of games has been applied to individual linguistic behavior (Segal and Stacey, 1975), neurotic and psychotic interpersonal relationships (Berne, 1964), children's behavior (Roberts and Sutton-Smith, 1962), students' behavior (Ernest, 1972), behavior in the classroom and cultural patterning of behavior (Alschuler, 1972), and juvenile delinquency (Empey, 1971).

Games are characterized by rules, scoring systems, obstacles that must be overcome to score, and a method of decision making.[7] In analyzing attention-getting games in school we identify the implicit or explicit rules, the payoffs or points, the nature of

the scoring system, the obstacles to making points, and the focus of decision making. We have identified and analyzed 35 attention-getting games played regularly in school. The following example is a partial analysis of one frequently occurring game.

The bell rings,

Students group around the teacher with questions and comments "I forgot my homework," "Can I get a drink of water?" A few students talk in the corner of the room.

The teacher asks each student individually to sit down.

Other students come up who didn't hear, or pretend not to have heard the teacher's request.

The teacher's voice rises so that the whole class can hear the command, "All right! Everybody sit down, C'mon."

Students move ever so slowly to their seats as if only an intermission warning bell had sounded. They chat leisurely as they move.

The teacher becomes impatient since it's difficult to take attendance. Often a threat occurs here.

Still some students get up, this time to sharpen pencils or deliver a note.

The teacher stops, stares, warns, or gives a detention notice depending on the situation.

This "milling game" happens so regularly teachers would think something were wrong if one day all students were in their seats quietly eager to begin the lesson when the bell rang. The purpose of the "milling game" is to delay the opening of class (i.e., decrease attention to learning). If we were to create a rule-book for new teachers and new students on "How to

Participate in the Milling Game," it would be short and simple.

To new teachers:

1. Answer as many requests as possible within reason.
2. Beware of questions about your favorite topic that have nothing to do with the course.
3. Anger is O.K. to a degree, but you lose points if the students get to you.
4. Don't get hooked and turn your back on the class.

To new students:

1. Always ask questions as if you really wanted to know the answers.
2. Provoke the teacher, but not enough to get punished. You get points for how close you come to the cliff without getting shoved off.
3. Never move farther or faster than you absolutely have to.
4. Never, ever mill alone!

What's the payoff? Why do teachers and students play the milling game in almost every class? There must be some powerful gratifications or big "points," to continue our analogy. As best we could determine, students got to be part of a team, enjoyed beating the system, and got attention from both their peers and the teacher, though for different reasons. Teachers want to be responsive, to feel competent, to have students' respect, and most of all, they want to help students get what students want.

Notice almost all of these needs are legitimate, virtuous, innately human, and usually inoffensive. But when the milling game is the means for satisfying these needs, they become mutually antagonistic and often destructive, most of all for students who get kicked out of the class. In this game the type of

scoring system is "win-lose." Either teachers win and students lose or visa versa. One purpose of social literacy training is to help teachers and students collaboratively transform these competitive, conflictful win-lose games into cooperative win-win learning games.

4. Solving the problem

a. Illustrative solutions. We have found it useful to distinguish between three levels of the system in terms of school games: (1) games governing the interpersonal relationships between two persons; (2) games governing an entire classroom group of individuals; and (3) games governing all members of a school. It appears that games must be changed at all three levels if classroom conflict is to be significantly reduced. The three examples below illustrate the nature of socially literate solutions at each level.

(i) Transforming an interpersonal game[8]

An eighth grade inner city English teacher noticed a student playing with a magic marker, which was against a school rule. When he refused to give the magic marker to the teacher she accidently brushed against him as she was trying to get it. The student erupted into a torrent of abuses and threatened to "get" her after school if she touched him again. The teacher sent the student to the front office for disciplining.

The teacher had been admonished "to enforce the school rules for everyone's sake," but felt caught in such situations between feelings of obligation and incompetence when such conflicts arose.

Through discussions with the counselor, the teacher realized the significance of the magic marker. As a member of a street gang he, with others, had been building his reputation by writing his name on every available public surface. To have given up

the means for making his reputation would have been a violation of the gang's norms. Not to have retaliated when the teacher touched him would have been a further violation.

The next day the teacher analyzed, with the class, the nature of the impasse between her and the student and role played the situation in class to see if they all could discover better ways to handle the conflict. This led to a long discussion of the intricacies of living within gang codes.

The following day the teacher continued the discussion of gang codes by comparing their experiences with characters in The Cool World, a book they had been reading. From this they identified some additional reading in black literature, role playing, and other affective techniques.

The improved class discipline began by collaboratively re-naming and analyzing the cause of the problem, then by transforming the relationship and course rules to satisfy students' and teachers' legitimate needs. In this example, what began as a simple disciplinarian problem led to a change in teacher-student relationships, (discipline-ship), and changes in the subject matter discipline which were collaboratively determined by the students and teacher (self-regulation discipline).

(ii) Transforming a classroom game

During his first year of teaching fifth grade at an integrated urban private school, the teacher lectured, assigned homework, gave tests, and graded students by standard he determined. The class average gain in mathematics achievement as measured by the Stanford Achievement test for one full year was 0.2 years. Students slept in class, day dreamed, or talked with their friends. He felt frustrated, incompetent, and angry at the students.[9]

During the following summer the teacher participated in a workshop that included a simulation game of a business. In consultation with Professor Alschuler he decided to structure the mathematics class as a business game. He hoped that the rules in the simulation game that had been so exciting for him would have a similar impact on the students.

When school opened, he had the same class of students to teach, now in the sixth grade. First he played the simulated business game with the students. They enjoyed it tremendously. Then he proposed that the math class be set up like the game. While the students agreed in general, they had many suggested changes in the rules and payoffs (grade) schedule. They negotiated agreements, printed up contracts, play money, score sheets, etc. Team work was allowed. The teacher became a coach, not a director. Students were encouraged to set and attain their own goals. At the end of the sixth grade the average gain on the Stanford Achievement test for the entire class was 3.0 years. "Disciplinarian" actions were seldom necessary, e.g., when students read a comic book, they were "taking a vacation," not violating a rule.

As in the first example this teacher began by re-naming the problem as existing in the nature of the classroom game, not in students' "motivation" or in himself. In collaboratively changing the rules of the math class they reduced discipline problems, increased learning, changed the teacher-student relationship, and increased meaningful student participation determining what happened to them: the four aspects of good discipline.

(iii) Transforming a school game

Two years ago in the same Springfield junior high school, students who were late to class had to

convince the classroom teacher that they had a legitimate reason. The debates at the door took time from class and in 127 instances during the first semester, resulted in a teacher-student conflict that had to be resolved by a referral to the front office. The next year instead of berating students for being late or teachers for their inability to handle students, the principal changed a school rule. All students who were late to class went first to the front office to get an automatic "pass," up to three times. The fourth, and subsequent times they received a front office referral. This change in policy reduced the total referrals during the next year's first semester to 21, a decrease of over 100 referrals. Also, it increased the amount of class time available for learning since there were far fewer doorway debates, and fewer dismissals for repeated offenses.

These three examples illustrate the types of outcomes that result from social literacy training. Obviously the next question is how are these and other solutions generated.

b. Methods and techniques. Most teachers work alone, isolated from other adults for the better part of every working day, a phenomenon almost unique to teaching in public schools. Especially in difficult urban schools, this characteristic of the teaching role often makes teachers feel insecure, alienated, and tense. Teachers' isolation combined with typical informal prohibitions against talking about serious educational issues have several consequences: (1) problems common to most or all teachers are not "seen," and as a result difficulties are misdiagnosed as idiosyncratic personal problems; (2) survival in the classroom takes precedence over attempts to innovate, or transform the games, since innovation is risky and threatens loss of control; (3) teachers lack the

collaborative support of other teachers that could reduce their risks and increase their power to transform discipline games. Social literacy training responds to these problems and helps transform interpersonal, classroom, and school games through two interrelated methods: support groups for teachers and classroom facilitators.

(i) Support groups for teachers.

Like other types of consciousness-raising groups, social literacy support groups for teachers are organized to name common problems, to analyze the system-causes of those problems, and to provide mutual support in solving the problem. Teachers meet about once a week after school to engage in this process, aided by a number of techniques we have developed. One technique for naming the games we play in school involves creating a "survival guide," a complete list of all the formal and informal rules. These include unnamed norms of behavior like "play cards in the teachers' lounge; don't discuss educational ideas," and public rules ranging from "never let a student out of class without a pass," to "always keep the window shades in the front of the building at the same length." Usually there are over one-hundred such rules, per school. Typically teachers have few options in following these rules that control so much of their daily lives. Many of these rules produce inner and interpersonal conflict. Thus, the list constitutes a concrete measure of teachers' oppression by the system, and a set of prioritized targets for change.

A second method of naming the social game of schools involves a "stress hunt." (see Appendix 3b) Teachers interview each other asking such questions as, "At what point during the day do you feel most tired?", "What is the most emotionally draining activity of the day?", "What do other teachers say causes

greatest physical and emotional fatigue?" From an extensive list of stresses, a summarized list of ten to twelve categories is created. One school's summary consists of the following categories: rigid curriculum, problems with parents, class size, discipline problems, conflicts with the administrators, destruction of school property, clerical/paper work, lack of equipment and materials, lack of teacher input into decisions, lack of planning time, interruptions that disrupt class, dress code, racial strife. Every day for two weeks, the minute school ended, teachers rated each stress on a three point scale as not stressful, stressful, or very stressful. The highest frequency stresses were "interruptions" and "discipline problems." Interestingly, when the same general procedure was conducted with students they too identified interruptions as the problem that bugged them the most.

A third technique for naming social problems helped clarify some prime causes of interruptions. We have developed a systematic method of assessing Mutually Agreed-upon Learning Time (MALT) during a class. Ten students are randomly selected and observed every four minutes in a 43 minute class for a total of 100 observations. At the observation, the rater must decide whether instructional material is present (e.g., a discussion of a math problem vs. class attention to a discipline problem) and whether or not the student is paying attention to instructional material. The MALT percentage is simply the number of times out of 100 that students are paying attention to instructional material. By obtaining many MALT scores in two junior high schools we discovered that every time the P.A. system went on there was a four to eight minute disruption period in almost every class. These interruptions occurred regularly in spite of a regu-

lation negotiated by the teachers' union formally restricting the use of the P.A. system to the first and last five minutes of class periods. Teachers who conducted these stress and MALT analyses have organized to negotiate solutions to this problem that will decrease the stress without causing new problems for administrators who sometimes must use the P.A. in the middle of class to deal with emergencies.

Encouraging a "transforming" level of literacy is most pronounced when the teacher-groups figure out the system causes of the problems they have named. Most of us have a pervasive, gut-level, unnamed feeling that the schools in which we work are basically democratic, unoppressive, and sound, and that most problems are caused by individuals who deviate from an ideal standard of behavior expected by the institution. The problems are in students, their I.Q., their upbringing, their culture, their association with "bad" peers. Or, the cause is in the style of an administrator, or in the style of a troublesome peer or in that person who's "probably just having a bad day." Blaming persons not only often prevents us from seeing more fundamental system causes, but creates an adversary relationship based on uncharitable assumptions. While it is appropriate to feel sad, angry, and upset about the pain inflicted by individuals on all victims, it is not appropriate to naively direct that anger at those individuals who appear to be inflicting the damage. Most people are doing their job the best they know how and believe that their efforts will promote the common good. The targets of social literacy training are changing oppressive roles, not the role inhabitants; oppressive goals, not those who advocate them; oppressive rules, not the rule-enforcers; oppressive practices, not the practitioners; oppressive policies, not the policy makers; oppressive norms,

not the normal people who act them out. We believe in principle that it is both more humane and usually more effective to see these distinctions clearly, and to cherish all persons, while collaboratively acting to change oppressive aspects of the system.

Consider the following characteristic of many desegregated schools. The percent of black suspendees often is twice the percent of black students in the school. What is done about this situation depends to a great degree on what people believe to be the causes. "Blacks can't get along. They come from poor homes where they are not taught proper discipline and respect. They aren't as bright, as a group. Consequently they don't learn to read as well or as quickly. This leads to conflict in the classroom. They'd rather fight than admit they can't read." This explanation blames the victims and generates efforts to change them. An alternative explanation is that, "White teachers are racist. Some, in particular, are killer teachers who account for a disproportionate number of referrals. If only they could be reformed or terminated, the situation would improve tremendously." This explanation, like the first, blames victims, for it is a rare exception for a teacher to enjoy conflicts and expulsions. Most often, referrals to the front office are painful last-resort acts after all else has failed. In contrast, a system-blame explanation focuses on the regular mismatch of learning/teaching styles, systematically misunderstood interaction patterns, system errors of omission (e.g., personnel composition, textbooks, posters, cafeteria food that does not include adequate representation of diverse ethnic tastes). This way of naming and understanding the problem focuses our energies on the system factors that victimize all people, and waste and alienate tremendous human resources.

In social literacy training we blame the system for our problems and exonerate all individuals who are victimized. Discussion of books such as Pedagogy of the Oppressed and Education for Critical Consciousness, by Paulo Freire provide a philosophic base. Ryan's Blaming the Victim identified numerous specific ways the system oppresses and victimizes people in schools. To bring the issues home we take candid photographs of frequently occurring highly charged incidents in our schools: hall monitoring, students sleeping at their desks, fights in the hallway, etc. For each of the pictures we make up imaginary stories in response to the following questions: (1) Who are the people? What are their roles? What are they doing, thinking, and feeling? (2) What is the problem in this picture? Are things as they should be? (3) What are the causes of the problem? What is to blame? (4) What can be done to solve the problem? Our goal is to identify as many system causes of common problems as possible and to generate alternative solutions to the problems that victimize no one.

Solving problems in the school game (the rules, roles, goals, norms, policies, and practices) cannot be accomplished by individual teachers, or even groups of teachers acting alone. Everyone's cooperation is necessary. Transforming a baseball team into a volleyball team would require all roles and rules of the game to be changed. If only one player changed roles and played by different rules, that person would look bizarre indeed. The effort would be quixotic. cial literacy teachers need to know how to negotiate effectively with students, administrators, and parents to increase collaboration rather than enmity. To facilitate learning this difficult skill, and to provide practice trials of possible solutions,

we have created two simulation games. The first, "Tame It" is a three part sequence adapted from Ungerleider, et. al. (1969) and Allen (1969) in which a social literacy group: (1) role plays a specific instance of a problem they have identified; (2) given this shared experiential "feel" for the problem, the group attempts to name and analyze the possible system causes of the problem; then (3) the group creates role play situations in which they can practice negotiating mutually enhancing solutions with people play-acting other roles. The second simulation, "The Discipline Game," (see Appendix 2c) presents about one hundred frequently occuring classroom conflicts which players in the roles of teacher and students attempt to resolve in three minute negotiation sessions. Not only do players earn points in direct proportion to the effectiveness of their bargaining, the negotiations themselves often facilitate the discovery of underlying radical causes and solutions to those problems.

Most of the techniques described in this section are illustrated by Ms. Fallon's participation in a junior high school social literacy group. She was hired as a long-term substitute to teach music. Toward the end of the second quarter she joined the group at the principal's suggestion. Each of the six teachers in the group took turns observing her teaching to obtain MALT scores, a standard practice in social literacy groups. In Ms. Fallon's classes the percent of mutually agreed-upon learning time ranged from ten percent upwards to a maximum of 30 percent, an unusually low figure. One class that met consecutively during two of the three lunch periods was chaotic to the point of being a physically dangerous place to exist. Flying objects often created the impression of a front line under heavy bombardment.

Although Ms. Fallon had been asked to teach English one period and music the other, there was no discernable difference between the two: the anarchy was continuous. Most students wandered around the room, talking, braiding hair, "ranking" each other, standing on desks, or fighting, while two or three students worked quietly with Ms. Fallon at her desk, seemingly oblivious to the general disorder.

In the interview portion of the Stress Hunt they discovered that Ms. Fallon had never taught before, other than her brief period of practice teaching, that she had been trained as a music teacher not as as English teacher, and that her sole and extensive previous work experience had been supervising crews of tobacco pickers. Then her teaching style became understandable, even though it was not highly appropriate. In the fields each person knows what to do and is expected to work without constant coordination by the supervisor, who instead, focuses attention only on those people who are having a particular problem. This is what Ms. Fallon was doing with students at her desk, as she had done in the tobacco fields.

The social literacy group also realized that Ms. Fallon did not know how to survive in the classroom or school, not because of innate personality deficits or faulty teacher preparation, but because she did not fully understand the rules of the school. It was as if Ms. Fallon entered a hockey game ready to lead a scout troop on an expedition. This led the group to create a School Survival Guide and to focus on the school's absent-procedures for orienting substitute teachers to all the school rules. Any substitute teacher is likely to have difficulties if s/he is inserted into the classroom with minimal explanation of the formal and informal rules, and little ongoing coaching or support.

While this helped to explain the systematic mismatch of expectations, styles, and behaviors, it did not solve the problem. A breakthrough came when the group realized, again through the stress analysis interview, that Ms. Fallon was a superb dancer, a highly valued skill among the junior high school students. This was a natural vehicle for teaching music through a creative, involving method. With this potential solution in mind the next problem was to devise a way to organize the teaching and learning around this activity vehicle. Using their free periods, the social literacy teachers interviewed most of the students to find out from them what they liked most in the way their best classes were conducted. This helped the students to identify their self-interests just as the discussions with Ms. Fallon prepared her to make a potentially viable proposal for change. Finally, the social literacy group facilitated the transformation of the classroom learning situation by playing the "Discipline Game" several times with students to teach them how to negotiate effectively, and by several "Tame It" role plays with Ms. Fallon to prepare her for the process of collaboratively creating mutually satisfying learning.

Social literacy groups use these and other techniques to carry the problem solving process through to completion. We do not believe there are any standard solutions and even if there were, their implementation would vary in each specific school. We believe that it is important for each social literacy group to engage in the process of naming their reality, to reflect on the causes of specific problems, and to cooperatively transform the system that shapes them. These are uniquely human capacities not inherent in inanimate objects or lower animals. The more these human capacities are blocked, the more dehumanized

and oppressed we are. The more they are exercised, the more human we become and the more social change will occur.

(ii) Classroom facilitators.

In addition to support groups for teachers, we have developed a second major method for increasing social literacy. An individual (teacher, guidance counselor, supervisor, assistant principal, or outside consultant) acts as a coach who helps the team (in this case the class and its leader, the teacher) improve its performance. This involves (1) establishing an entry contract with the class and teacher (facilitators are never imposed); (2) naming central conflicts in the class using the MALT, Stress Hunt Survival Guide, or some other diagnostic tool; (3) analyzing the causes with the teacher and class to identify the roots of the pattern of conflicts, what legitimate needs have been placed in conflict by roles or rules, and what might be done; (4) solving the problem using the "Tame It" role play or "Discipline Game" to practice solutions, and cooperative, democratic decision-making and planning to implement the solution; (5) leaving the classroom, not too soon before the solution is in place and follow-up data has been obtained, to prove that attention time is up and conflicts are down, and not too late delaying the management of the situation by the teacher and students. Examples of classroom facilitation have been described already: e.g., Ms. Fallon's English and music class, the conflict over the magic marker. Because many teachers are nervous and/or embarrassed to have a "superior" in the system be a classroom facilitator, we have found that teachers in the support groups are far more willing to provide this service for each other. Per se, this role is not dramatically new. It follows the literacy training

sequence, uses most of the social literacy techniques, and is genotypically similar to certain forms of family therapy and organizational development practice. What is unusual in schools is the active, hands-on help from a colleague in implementing solutions.

5. The uniqueness of social literacy training.

The approach to resolving central conflicts in schools is summarized in the chart below.

Chart 4

The Social Literacy Approach
To Solving the Discipline Problem

Social Literacy Training	Transformations	More Democratic & Effective Schools
1. Teacher support group, and 2. Classroom process facilitators to name, analyze and solve central conflicts	1. School Games 2. Classroom Games 3. Interpersonal Games	Increased MALT/ Improved Discipline 1. Gains in subject matter; learning of discipline 2. Increased respect (Discipline-ship 3. Increased self-regulation (discipline) 4. Decreased referrals and suspensions

The fundamental uniqueness of this approach to solving discipline problems is evident by comparison to other solutions.

a. Social literacy training does not blame individuals. A body of theory, research, and litigation supports the viability of a system-blame explanation of school discipline problems. Freire (1970, 1973) argues at a philosophic level that the prescriptive nature of public education victimizes students, and further, that individuals (students or teachers) who voluntarily support rules which they have had little or no role in establishing or changing are, by definition, actively maintaining an undemocratic, oppressive system. Ryan (1971) has extended this analysis showing specifically how American schools victimize black students through policies, practices, norms, and rules. These constitute a list of specific targets for system change. Recent empirical studies suggest that changing the system can have dramatic effects on increasing or decreasing the "deviant" behaviors of all participants in the system. (Milgram, 1963; Haney, Banks, and Zimbardo, 1973; Rosenhan, 1973; Rogeness, Bednar and Diesenhaus, 1974).[10] Recently the court has entered the debate on the side of system-blame explanations of individual's "deviant" behavior. In Hawkins v. Coleman, (376 F. Supp. 1330, 1974) Judge Sara Hughs decided against the school system's dismissal of a black student. Citing that an average of 60 percent of the suspendees were black while only 40 percent of the students in the school were black, Judge Hughs stated "that racism was the chief cause of the situation, and that there was a need for [the] school district to be responsive to needs of black students by acting in terms of institutional and structural changes." (Our emphasis added.) Altogether, there is a philos-

ophic rationale, specific targets for system change, empirical evidence that system-changes may have powerful effects on deviant behavior, and recent incentive from the court to support a system-blame approach.

Without explicitly denying the importance of system-causes of behavior, most research on school discipline ignores this perspective, focusing instead on secondary prevention almost entirely, by identifying the characteristics of problem-students or problem-teachers, as if the majority of variance in school discipline problems were "caused" by factors in individuals (Hayes, 1973; Stauffer and Owens, 1955; Russell, 1957; Eaton, 1957; Reeves and Goldhan, 1957; Garrison, 1959; Bowman, 1959; Zeetlin, 1962; Barnes, 1963; Thurston, Feldhausen and Benning, 1964; Crispin, 1968; Harris, 1969; Kounin, 1970; Stebbins, 1970; Rollin, 1973). The problem with these studies is not primarily in the methodology used, but in the questions asked. If researchers only look for characteristics of individuals involved in discipline incidents, they are not likely to identify causes in the system.

b. Social literacy is a multi-leveled solution. Given the pervasiveness of person-blame explanations of discipline problems, it is not surprising that most other current "solutions" focus on changing individual's behaviors or interpersonal relationships, rather than class or school organization, i.e., they are not multi-level solutions. Typically, teachers are taught a series of specific dos and don'ts (Welch and Schuttle, 1973; Pearson, 1975), or they are taught how to negotiate with students (Glasser, 1969; Gordon, 1970; Dreikurs and Grey, 1968), or they are taught how to manage the reinforcement contingencies that influence individual student's behavior (Dollar, 1972; Barrish, Sanders and Wolf, 1969; Broden, Bruce, Mitchell, Carter and Hall, 1970; Wasck,

Senu, Welch and Cooper, 1969; McAllister, Stachowiak, Baer and Conderman, 1969; Patterson, 1966; Hall and Broden, 1967; Hall, Panyan, Rabon, Broden, 1968; Thomas, Becker, and Armstrong, 1968; Hall, Lund and Jackson, 1968; Madson, Becker and Thomas, 1968; Becker, Madson, Arnold and Thomas, 1967). One recent article describes how students were taught to modify their teachers' behavior (Grey, Grandbard and Rosenberg, 1974). The primary effect of these person-oriented efforts is to change the nature of teacher-student interpersonal relationships. Without denying the effectiveness of these approaches, it also seems clear that they are unilevel approaches, most appropriate for relationships with individual "problem students" (Patterson, 1971, pp. 763-68). As effective as they may be, it is unlikely that they can be as efficient as changing the organization of classroom learning or school policies.

One partial exception to these person-blame approaches is the spate of research on "token-culture classrooms." Although the problem typically is seen as existing in individual students ("pre-delinquent boys," "delinquent boys," "emotionally disturbed boys," "oppositional children"), the solution involves re-organizing classroom learning. Special token-economy classrooms are established which carefully decrease the rate of deviant behaviors and then introduce contingencies designed to strengthen academic skills. After a period of time in these special classrooms, the students return to their regular classes. In his extensive review of over forty studies of token-culture classrooms, Patterson (1971) concludes: "The sum of evidence from these studies supporting the effectiveness of token systems in altering deviant behavior for groups of children is overwhelming." (p. 769) And, such attempts to change the organization of

classroom learning are more efficient than focusing on individual students in isolation. "Under certain circumstances the most expedient method for altering the behaviors may be to focus on an entire group of deviant children in a token-culture classroom" (Patterson, 1971, p. 768).

There are virtually no studies of effects on the discipline problem resulting from changes in school policies, rules, or organizational norms, though presumably this level of change could be even more efficient in decreasing the discipline problem. For instance, in the example previously cited, referrals for doorway conflicts were reduced by over eighty percent by changing one school rule.

c. Social literacy training is direct. Virtually all existing attempts to help teachers improve learning in the classroom and decrease discipline problems are indirect. They occur outside of the classroom: teacher training, curriculum development, in-service education, even supervision involves passive observation in the classroom and discussion later. It is as if a taboo prohibited anyone from working with teachers in the classroom. It is not surprising that there is a great deal of slippage between the bright new ideas for how to proceed in class and teachers' actually trying out those ideas. Many teachers feel unsupported to the point of abandonment. Like many utopian visions of ideal societies, virtually all currently popular methods of solving the discipline conflicts, because they are indirect, finesse the implementation problem. In contrast, social literacy process facilitation involves a trainer working with teachers and students in the classroom itself. It simply stands to reason that this would be more effective help leading to more adopted solutions.

d. Social literacy yields a broad range of outcomes. Almost all of the existing "solutions" to the "discipline problem" concentrate on the control or elimination of deviant, anti-social misconduct through more effective action by teachers. For some of the most popular techniques (Glasser, 1969; Gorden, 1970; Driekurs, 1968) there is little, if any, data documenting their effectiveness in even this limited aspect of the discipline problem. As Patterson (1971) points out in his review of token culture classrooms, there is considerably less evidence supporting the carry-over effects on students after they leave these special classrooms, and little evidence that decreases in "deviant behavior" are accompanied by increases in learning.

A possible exception may be PREP, a token-economy program for 80 normal junior high school students (Center for Studies of Crime and Delinquency, 1973), who are taught two academic subjects, interpersonal skills, and have parental tutoring. "This...has brought a short-term reward for students in terms of higher grades in all classes, better test results in English and math and improved relations with teachers, parents, and their friends" (p. 6). These encouraging results may reflect PREP's specific concern for broader outcomes and fuller integration with the regular schooling of these students.

Social literacy training from the outset is concerned with a broad range of outcomes. Increasing the amount of mutually agreed-upon learning time (MALT) is a mediating variable that should be reflected in increased respect and affection for teachers (disciple-ship), increased participation in the control of classroom activities (self-regulation discipline) and decreased numbers of referrals and suspensions (disciplinarian actions).

Notes

[1]A thorough philosophic exigesis of Freire's dense and abstract writings is contained in the doctoral dissertation of Maryellen Harmon, 1975.

[2]We have developed an objective method of assessing the stage of an individual or group's literacy. William Smith's doctoral dissertation "Conscientizacao, An Operational Definition," was developed in rural Ecuador as part of a non-formal education project and has been applied successfully to consciousness raising groups in the U.S.

[3]Freire calls this the "generative theme." Marxists call if the "fundamental contradiction."

[4]We express again publicly our appreciation to Dr. John Shea, principal, who has maintained continuous support in spite of temptations.

[5]Results of this investigation, as well as a comprehensive review of U.S. discipline practices are contained in Dr. Lions doctoral dissertation.

[6]For more illustrations of this point of view, see "Blame the System--or How to Love People While Changing Their Roles."

[7]A more extended analysis of the function of educational games may be found in Alschuler, 1974, Chapter 7.

[8]A more extensive presentation of this example may be found in Kuriloff, 1973.

[9]This example and a second one are reported in detail in Developing Achievement Motivation in Adolescents, (Chapter 7) Alschuler, 1973.

[10]Even the recent critique of the Haney, Brooks, and Zimbardo study of a simulated prison (Bamiaziz and Movahedi, 1975) does not question the impact of the simulated "system" on behavior. It simply reinterprets the implications of the study as reflecting role playing in this experimental social system as opposed to evidence of the dynamics of a real prison system.

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MANUAL FOR MEASURING THE MUTUALLY AGREED-UPON LEARNING TIME (MALT) IN CLASSROOMS

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Introduction

This measure of mutually agreed-upon learning time (MALT) is a systematic method for assessing the percentage of time during a class period that students are attending to instructional material. The value of MALT is based on two assumptions:

(1) Students only learn when they are paying attention to instructional material. Even Pavlov's dogs did not learn to salivate when when they were not attentively listening to the bell, i.e. had bored, flopped down ears. Initially Dr. Allen Cohen developed this measure to establish scientifically that there is a direct and positive correlation between MALT and how much students learn. In the classrooms taught by teachers judged "excellent" by their principals, MALT ranged between 50-60 percent. Dr. Cohen's special interest was to create "maximum intensity" reading classes for disadvantaged youth in the New York City public schools. He was able to double MALT from about 45 percent to 80 percent, a prac-

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tical maximum (no one can pay attention 100 percent of the time). The result was doubled reading gain scores.

(2) A second assumption behing this measure of MALT is the importance of teachers and students collaboratively focusing on instructional material. Either students or the teacher can unilaterally destory MALT, for example, by a teacher digressing from the instructional material, or by students letting their attention wander. The fact that only 50 percent of class time on the average is MALT raises an obvious question: What kinds of non-collaboration are occurring during the remaining unproductive class time? Our measure of MALT indicates some of the competitive teacher-student "games" that take place during the remainder of a class period.

Many teachers are shocked to find that their "orderly, upper-track" classes have such low MALT, e.g., 40-60 percent. But often five to ten minutes at the beginning of class is spent taking roll, getting students seated and books opened. Another five minutes may be used at the end of class preparing for the track race to the next class. This is about 30 percent of a 43 minute period in which no instructional material is present; therefore, there can be no attention to instructional material. There are additional normal interruptions, e.g. announcements over the P.A., discipline incidents, or digressions. During the remaining class time in which instructional material is present, only 2/3 of the class may actually

be focusing their attention on the instructional material, even if it appears orderly and cooperative, at any point in time. The net effect is a MALT score of about 40-50 percent.

We believe there are four basic causes of low MALT scores, each an aspect of the "discipline problem."

1. Failure of the subject matter Discipline to sustain students' attention.
2. Inability of students to adequately regulate their own attention (discipline, in the sense of self-regulation).
3. Teachers not spending time on instructional material because they are engaged in disciplinarian actions.
4. Lack of a mutual respect and caring relationship between students and teachers (this is a discipline problem in the root meaning of the word, disciple-ship).

Thus, improving MALT involves solving the discipline problem in any or all of these four ways. This is one of the main goals of social literacy training.

In the context of social literacy training this measure of MALT is used for several purposes: (1) to obtain objective data before and after training to measure improvement, (2) to initiate a focused dialogue during social literacy training about the array of specific discipline problems, (3) to insure that solutions to the discipline problem are relevant to specific classrooms, and finally, (4) to provide on going feedback after social literacy training, to help teachers continue improving the quality of education and the quality of interpersonal relationships in their classroom.

While this measure of MALT can be used in many ways, it has been designed for use in conjunction with a full social literacy training program. This includes pre-course MALT assessment of teachers' classrooms (Framing the problem), simulation games of classroom conflict situations (Gaming), conceptualization of key terms to describe the discipline problem (Naming it), relating these concepts to one's ideal teacher role, values, and classroom (Claiming it), inventing solutions to the discipline problem (Taming it) and designing ways of carrying out these solutions in the classroom (Aiming it). We strongly recommend that this manual always be followed by collaborative attempts to improve the situation it diagnoses. If it is used by researchers solely for data gathering purposes, it exploits teachers and students. If the data generated by this measure is not followed by effective problem solving, the data may just be depressing. Social literacy training provides a method to start with this essential assessment, build towards a better classroom climate for everyone.

How to Assess MALT in a Classroom

Any new person in a classroom changes the dynamics and climate of the class. To minimize this effect (in order to obtain as accurate an assessment of MALT as possible), the observer should have a pre-observation conference with the teacher and also with the class. After the observer's presence in the classroom is legitimized and clarified, s/he attends the class on the designated day, sits in a back corner seat before class begins, and chooses ten students to observe whose faces can be seen. Every four minutes the observer records an assessment for each of the ten

chosen students. If no instructional material is present at the time the observation begins, all ten students receive a 0. If instructional material is present, the observer looks at each of the ten students in sequence, long enough to assess whether they are attending (+) or not attending (-). In a normal 43 minute period, this results in 100 observations (ten students during ten observation periods). The percentage of MALT is simply the number of pluses recorded during the period.

Typically, the observation of the ten students does not take four minutes. In between MALT assessments the observer records classroom activities, "games," or other specific comments on what is happening, at the bottom of the MALT assessment chart. After the MALT assessment of the class, the observer should meet with the teacher and/or class to discuss the results of the observation.

Pre-Observation Conference

Collaborative negotiation is essential in all phases of social literacy training. MALT assessment must be a mutually agreed activity between the teacher, students, and observer in order to avoid an unfair imposition on the class, an unnecessary climate of threat or mystery, and other negative consequences. A pre-observation conference with the teacher is necessary to clarify the purposes of MALT and how the data will be used, and to plan an acceptable entry into the class. The following questions are appropriate topics for discussion during the pre-observation conference.

1. If the teacher has not initiated the request for a MALT assessment, is s/he fully agree-

able to having a MALT assessment?

2. Does the teacher have any conditions? e.g.,
   - . agreement by the students in class
   - . confidentiality of the results
   - . any requests to observe something in particular during class
   - . the nature of the feedback s/he wishes to receive to maximize the usefulness of the observation.
3. Is the teacher clear about what data will emerge from the MALT assessment and how it can be used in the social literacy training?
4. What steps should be taken to solicit the agreement of the class and to make the observer's presence as non-descruptive as possible?

Here are some suggested "Dos and Don'ts" for the observer to bear in mind during this conference:

- . Let the teacher read the MALT Manual, especially the introduction.
- . Convey to the teacher that a normal MALT score ranges from 40-60 percent.
- . Encourage the teacher to teach in their every-day style. Special lesson planning is unnecessary.
- . Do not raise questions that may undermine the teacher's style in class.
- . Do not force this MALT assessment on teachers.
- . Avoid introducing novelties or any special directions.*

*For a more extensive discussion of the relationship between a classroom observer and teacher, see Robert Goldhammer's Clinical Supervision (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1969)

Observation Procedures

The observer should be in the class in a back corner seat prior to the opening bell. This requires that the observer's presence be understood by the class before the observation occurs. Also, appropriate information on the MALT scoring sheet should be filled out before class begins, i.e. names of the observer and teacher, the date, the specific times that each of the ten sets of observations began, etc. If a stop watch is used to signal the beginning of each set of observations, it should be started as soon as the bell rings. Immediately choose ten students in the class to observe during each four minute period. They may be any ten students, but it is essential that the observer is able to see their faces as clearly as possible, and observe the same ten students each observation period. The first set of observations should begin one minute after the bell rings.

When an observation period begins, the observer must make an initial decision: Is "instructional material" present or not? If it is not, all ten students are scored 0 in the appropriate row on the score sheet. If "instructional material" is present, the observer looks at each student in sequence and makes a quick decision (usually 4-5 seconds is sufficient) about whether they are attending (score a + in the appropriate cell in the row) or not attending (score a - in the appropriate cell).

It is not possible, nor expected, that the observer always be able to make absolutely accurate decisions about whether instructional material is present and students are attending. The following definitions and examples should increase the validity and reliability of the observer's decision.

1. Is Instructional Material Present?

Instructional material is whatever subject matter or learning activity the teacher indicates is an appropriate focus of attention for the class period. Instructional material may be designated publicly, e.g. "Open your books to page 387." During the time students are opening their books, instructional material is not present. Only after they are reading or listening or discussing the designated material are students attending to the instructional material. The appropriate instructional material also may be designated to individual students, if the students have been told previously that they must choose from a number of available options. The way in which appropriate instructional material is designated varies from class to class. However, there are a number of clear instances indicating that instructional material is either present or not present.

Instructional Material

Is present when:	Is not present when:
the teacher is lecturing	the teacher is taking roll and the students are waiting
students are reading	the teacher is distributing materials
students are reciting	the teacher is reading announcements
students are responding to subject matter questions	the teacher is preparing students for work, giving instructions, directions, etc.

audio visual or other media presentations are being made

the teacher stops class for writing hall passes, tardy slips or to listen to the P.A. announcements

the teacher stops class to give a mini lecture on good behavior

the teacher responds to irrelevant, digressive questions

the teacher stops class to deal with a discipline problem

In deciding on whether or not instructional material is present, bear in mind two covenants: (1) during the observation of the ten students, instructional material may disappear, i.e. the teacher may stop the class to deal with a discipline problem. When this occurs, immediately give the remaining students being observed a 0; (2) the decision reflects presence or absence of instructional material. It is not determined by the quality of the presentation.

2. Are Students Attending to the Instructional Material?

Ultimately it is not possible to know for sure whether students are attending to the instructional material. A fixed stare may be rapt attention, or intense day dreaming. Inattention usually is more obvious. The single best way to judge attentiveness is to look at the students' eyes. This is why it is

important to be able to see the faces of the ten students being observed. If the observer is unsure about whether or not the student is attending, the student should be given the benefit of the doubt. This will result in a slightly inflated estimate of MALT, but if the positive bias in the observer's judgments is consistent from class to class, the net effect will be to produce equally valid MALT scores. For example, even if the MALT score before social literacy training is 50 percent and the MALT score after training is 65 percent, so long as both scores are equally inflated, e.g. by 10 percent, the change (15 percent in this example) is an accurate measure of improvement in MALT.

Attention should be judged

+ when the student	- when the student
seems to be looking at the teacher or person reciting the designated written material	is not looking at the designated material or person, e.g. out the window, comic books, a note from another student
is participating in oral recitation	is passing notes, drumming on the desk, throwing objects across the room, combing hair, smacking gum, or making distracting noises (grunts, singing and shrieking)
is reading from a designated piece of written material	is whispering conversations to another student

is asking appropriate questions

is playing a discipline game such as milling, the personal question game ("Hey, Teach, are you pregnant?"), the hall pass game

is engaged in designated writing or calculating

is sleeping

Observing ten students usually takes about one minute, leaving three minutes until the next observation period starts. During this intervening time it is important for the observer to write comments on the MALT scoring sheet in the appropriate area to the right of the row of observation cells. These comments may describe the kind of non-instructional activity that is occurring, the activities of particular students other than the ten who are being observed, reactions to any questions or issues the teacher has raised in the pre-observation conference, or anything that is relevant to the social relations of the classroom. In addition, there is a list of the most frequently occurring student and teacher moves and games beneath the observation chart. This provides a convenient opportunity to keep a tally of what is happening in the class by checking the appropriate move or game. Knowledge of the content and purposes of the social literacy training should help the observer decide what comment to make that may be most useful subsequently as teachers attempt to deal precisely with the specific problems in their class.

At the end of class, the MALT score is calculated by counting the number of pluses in the hundred cells, or by summing the ten row totals.

Post-Observation Conference

This may occur during a meeting of the social literacy training group, or individually with the observer, depending on the agreement reached during the pre-observation conference. If the post-observation conference is private, some of the agenda also should have been determined in the pre-observation conference. However, many new issues and questions may arise based on the presentation of the data.

A few words about an appropriate role for the observer during this phase may be helpful. The first purpose of the assessment is to diagnose MALT. It is preparatory for mutual, collaborative problem solving by a group of peers in the social literacy training. Therefore, it is best for the observer to avoid judgments of quality, or inundating the teacher with a spate of suggestions. These issues should be redirected to the social literacy training group itself. Instead, it is better to be openly supportive of the positive activities that occurred during class and strictly non-judgmental about the meaning or significance of the precise MALT score and discipline games that occurred. Open group discussion during the training is the appropriate time and place to work towards an answer to these value questions.

General Suggestions

Establishing Reliable MALT Scores

Without any special efforts to become a trained observer, two or more people attempting to get a MALT score for the same class are likely to derive quite different scores. It is important that observers' judgments be standardized as much as possible. This can be done by taking the following steps:

1. Two or more observers should observe the same class, then try to identify the causes of the differences in their row totals. Based on these discussions, observers should add to or clarify the definitions of instructional material and attending and non-attending behavior.
2. The observers then should obtain MALT scores for a second class and repeat their discussion and write down their emerging consensus about how to score MALT.
3. Observers then should observe a minimum of five more classes together. These times without any discussions of their total scores. If after these five observations by both people there are no paired scores that differ by more than 10 percent, the observers are ready to obtain MALT scores individually.
4. If MALT is used for research purposes, a more stringent test of reliability is appropriate. Specifically, follow steps one and two. Then each observer should score twenty classes and calculate reliability using an appropriate statistical procedure for determining the degree of correlation of the scores.

Training of the observers should continue until the next set of twenty scores is correlated at a level of 80 or better.

A second type of reliability is also important, namely how consistent are the MALT scores (a) for the same class from day to day or (b) across several classes during one day. It is fairer to the teacher to obtain both types of consistency estimates. The number of a teacher's classes observed, however, also will be determined by practical problems of time and availability of observers. One or two observations are probably sufficient to obtain useful information for social literacy training. More important factors in determining the value of the training are its completeness, length, and quality.

For research purposes, the number of MALT scores to obtain for a teacher's class across time or for a sample of the teacher's classes should be determined by standard research practices for obtaining a representative sample for a teacher or a group of teachers.

Follow-Up Uses of MALT Scores

Too often there is no good way to assess the effectiveness of a teacher training activity. MALT is one way among several others (e.g. referral rates to the front office increased, academic achievement scores, changes in the level of teachers' and/or students' consciousness) to determine whether or not social literacy training is having a meaningful effect, and to revise the training to be more relevant and appropriate.

MALT is also designed to help shape the content of the social literacy training itself. During an early phase of the training, it can be used to help

frame the problem: How much (or little) collaborative learning time occurs in class? What is happening during the non-learning time in each specific class? What specific discipline games occur most frequently that teachers should give priority to solving? What is the meaning of a MALT score? What is a good MALT score? What factors determine the level of MALT in a class? Once the discipline problem, in its four meanings, is identified, the subsequent portions of social literacy training provide opportunities to name and conceptualize the problem clearly, to invent possible solutions, and to develop workable solutions in class.

There are two additional ways MALT can be used to make the social literacy training maximally relevant to teachers. The specific games, moves, and comments from the observation sheet can be translated into "situations" in the Discipline Game and/or used as conflict situations for role playing during the "Tame it" portion of the course. In both activities, teachers then will have the opportunity to invent solutions to problems that actually occur in their classrooms.

Finally, MALT scores can be used for several purposes unrelated to social literacy training. It does appear to be a measure of a crucial variable in determining how much students are likely to learn in a class. Therefore, it is an appropriate method for supervisors to use in helping teachers improve classroom instruction and the amount of collaborative education. Similarly, it is an appropriate measure for certifying the competency of teachers or for other types of classroom evaluation. Obviously, it is an equally appropriate mediating variable to examine in educational research, i.e. what factors increase or decrease MALT?

In all of these other uses, it is possible to use this measure coercively or collaboratively. If, for example, teachers' tenure were based in part on high MALT scores without accompanying methods to help teachers promote high MALT scores, or perhaps even without mutual agreement that MALT scores should be used to determine tenure decisions, then our intentions will have been totally subverted. We believe that the most humane, ethical, liberating relationships are those in which peers work together to name their significant realities, to understand the causes of common problems, and to act collaboratively in transforming the rules, policies, norms, and procedures that create those problems. This is the essence of social literacy.

THE DISCIPLINE GAME

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Instructions

Introduction to the Game

The purpose of the discipline game is to introduce players to the process of negotiating mutually enhancing solutions to classroom discipline problems as an alternative to unilaterial punishment of students. The process of negotiating solutions also helps identify the needs and desires that motivate both students' and teachers' actions in typical discipline conflicts. This process enables players in the game to see these troublesome situations from different perspectives and usually leads to the realization that the best solutions satisfy legitimate teacher and student needs in mutually constructive ways.

In discussions after playing the discipline game it is possible to accomplish several other important objectives of social literacy training: Development of vocabulary to name the typical repertoire of student and teacher actions (moves) and the typical discipline cycles in the classroom, initial diagnosis of existing student and teacher needs that are

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expressed in these games, clarification of the nature of good and bad negotiations, preliminary lists of possible solutions to these problems, and consciousness raising about the causes and appropriate responses to classroom discipline problems.

The discipline game is designed for pre- and in-service junior high school teacher training. However, the game has been very successfully used with junior high school students and parents. Also, adaptations can be made to extend its relevance to elementary and senior high school students and teachers. To derive maximum benefit from the discipline game it should be used as one part of an ongoing program of social literacy training that includes several additional components: "Frame it," the definition and nature of the discipline problem; "Name it," the basic vocabulary for describing social relations in the classroom; "Claim it," relating the basic ideas to one's ideal self-image, cultural values, and the demands of one's own classroom situation; "Tame it," practice in applying these ideas; and "Aim it," the translation of this approach on an ongoing basis in the classroom and school.

The Discipline Problem and Socially Literate Solutions

Typically during 50 percent or more of each junior high school class students are not attending to the instructional material. This huge loss of learning time is a "discipline" problem in four senses of the word.

1. The subject matter (discipline) is failing to sustain students' attention.
2. Student self-regulation (discipline) is failing to channel attention on to the instructional material.

3. Attention to learning is preempted by disciplinarian behavior by the teacher.
4. Inadequate discipline is failing to sustain a conducive climate for attention to learning.

While any or all of these factors may be causing a particular classroom problem, they all result in a loss of mutually agreed upon attention to learning.

Social literacy training begins by focusing on what is going on during that 50-plus percent of lost learning time. Becoming socially literate about classroom discipline requires that individuals be able (1) to name the repertoire of discipline games in the classroom and the basic needs of individuals that are expressed through these games; (2) to understand how the implicit or explicit rules of these discipline games place legitimate teacher and student needs in opposition to each other; and (3) to transform teacher-student conflicts (bad discipline games) into mutually agreed upon attention to learning (good discipline games). These three components, (naming, understanding and transforming) are the basic aspects of all types of literacy.

The "Discipline Game" provides a wide variety of typical classroom discipline situations that occur during the 50-plus percent of time students are not attending to instructional material. Players in the role of teacher or student are given the opportunity to negotiate mutually agreeable solutions to these conflicts. In doing so, players name what is happening, understand each others needs, and attempt to work out mutually agreeable solutions.

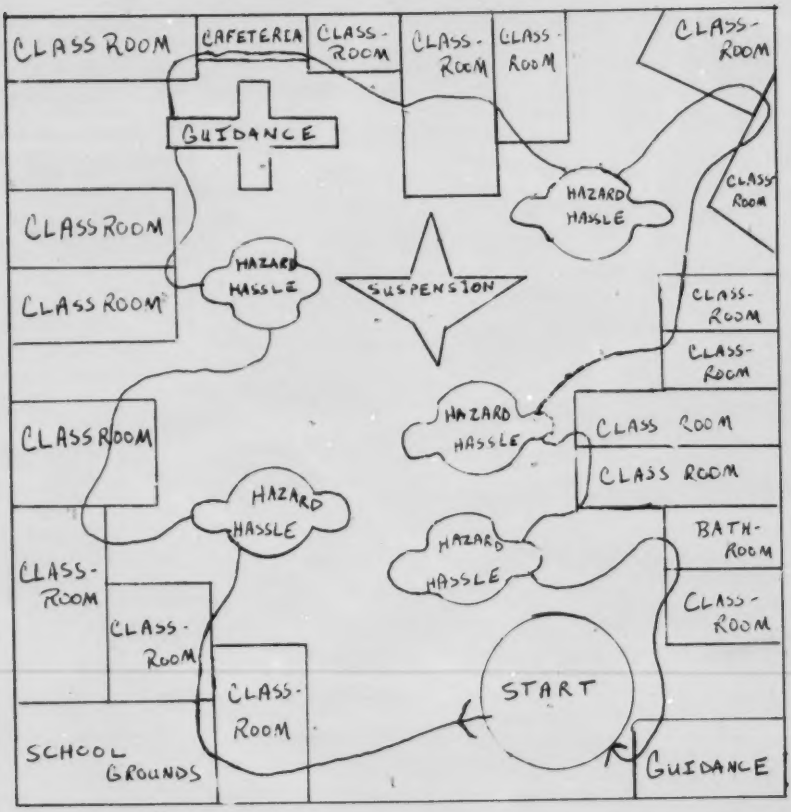
Overview of the Game

The game board identifies various places in school where discipline conflicts occur. Players progress around the board by rolling two dice to determine how many spaces they should move. For each type of place on the board the leader will describe a specific situation or conflict that has occurred. After hearing the specific conflict situation, the player may decide (1) to negotiate a solution, or (2) to accept a written solution that is then read from the situation manual. If the player decides to negotiate, other players may participate by investing some of their discipline credits, distributed at the beginning of the game. Additional discipline credits are either awarded to them or taken away depending on the success or failure of the negotiations as rated by the principal on a -1 to +2 scale. If the player decides to accept the written solution, specific numbers of discipline credits are designated by the situation manual. One major difference between negotiating and accepting written solutions is that either all players win or all lose discipline credits in negotiations. In the written solutions some players always win and some players always lose in that situation. When a player completes one cycle around the board, s/he receives 25 discipline credits. The object of the game is to earn as many discipline credits as possible.

The Discipline Game Board, "Pieces," and Places

We decided not to "publish" this game commercially because it would be expensive for teachers. We suggest that you purchase some brightly colored oil cloth, or similar material, and create your own game

(the size of the board is about 3' by 3')



board using felt pens, polaroid pictures, or other decorated symbols appropriate to your school.[1]

Each player in the game will need a distinctive "piece" to move around the board. Anything will do: chess pieces, medallions, rings, colored stones, an eraser, eye patch, band aid, hall pass, book marker, belt buckle, etc. A set of poker chips may be used for discipline credits.

There are seven different places represented on the board, each having conflict situations appropriate to it. The specific conflict is determined by finding the type of place in the situation manual and reading the situations in sequence. Read one situation when a player lands on that type of space. Read the next situation the next time a player lands on that type of space.[2]

1. Classroom: the situation manual contains examples of the types of discipline conflicts that occur in classrooms. There are three sections in each situation: The "situation," the "outcome," and the basic for negotiation." After hearing the situation, the player must decide whether to negotiate a solution or to accept the written outcome. The written outcome is read only if, and after, the player chooses to accept it rather than to negotiate. If the player decides to negotiate, read the "basis for negotiation." Three minutes are allowed for this process.
2. Hazards and hassles: denote activities taking place in hallways, stairways, locker rooms. Points are not won and lost in these situations. Rather, they are contributing forces which propel players into other situations on the board.

3. School grounds: contains examples of discipline problems that occur nearby, outside of school. There is no chance to negotiate solutions to problems found here. The outcomes are read from the manual.
4. Guidance: symbolizes the relationships between students and teachers that end up in the counselor's office. These situations are specifically concerned with the student and counselor-teacher relationship.
5. The cafeteria: symbolizes the types of discipline cycles which occur in this area of school. The outcomes are random, and no opportunity for negotiated solutions is provided here.
6. The bathroom: illustrates discipline cycles occuring in the bathroom. This place includes no win, win-lose, and win-win outcomes.
7. Suspensions: occasionally a student is suspended from the classroom and moves his/her piece to that place for the designated number of rounds.

Roles in the Discipline Game

Up to approximately ten people may play the discipline game at one time and still maintain fast-paced high involvement.

1. The principal: runs the game, has the situation manual, reads the conflict situations (and, when appropriate, reads the outcomes), keeps time on the three minute negotiating period, and finally, dispenses or collects the proper number of discipline credits.

2. Students and teacher: up to five players are students who take turns in sequence with a "teacher" (a sixth player, rolling the two dice and moving around the board. Whenever a student chooses to negotiate a conflict the teacher must negotiate. However, neither teacher nor students are required to reach agreement on the issues.
3. The jury: provides advice to the principal when s/he asks for it. To facilitate discussion after the game, each jury member should (1) keep a record of good and bad negotiating in the game, and/or (2) make a list of the needs expressed by students and teachers in the negotiations, and/or (3) keep a list of negotiated solutions to the discipline conflicts. The size of the jury should be about three. At some point during the game it may be interesting for the jury members to exchange roles with the students and teacher.

Rules for the Discipline Game

1. Each player receives 15 discipline credits at the beginning of the game, i.e. one blue chip (10), and one red chip (5) or five white chips (1).
2. The number of spaces each player moves is determined by rolling two dice.
3. In classroom situations after the situation is read, the player has a choice of negotiating or the player may accept the written outcome. If the player chooses the written outcome, it then is read, and that move is over. If the player chooses to negotiate,

there is a three (3) minute time period beginning after other players have had a chance to invest in the negotiations. The teacher must negotiate when a student calls for negotiations. When a teacher chooses to negotiate a conflict, s/he may choose any one or more of the students to negotiate with. Those students must negotiate.

4. All players may invest in the negotiations, before the discussion begins, by placing one to five discipline credits (chips) on the board in front of them. Any player who invests in negotiations may also take an active vocal role in those negotiations. Those who do not invest, may not speak. The principal judges the success or failure of the negotiations on a -1 to +2 scale. If a player has invested five discipline credits and the negotiations were highly successful (judged a +2) that player gets ten additional discipline credits (10) from the principal. If negotiations fail badly and are judged -1, the player must give the principal fifteen discipline credits s/he has invested. There is one rating for each negotiation. Thus all players, (students and teachers) get the same rating.
5. The ratings of negotiations are based on the following criteria as judged by the principal.
   -1 Any negotiations that result in increased misunderstanding, anger, hostility or conflict.
   0 Any negotiations which end in a stalemate, without apparent willingness to bargain in good faith, seek compromise, or allow the other party in the negotiations any

way to meet their needs. Either party in the negotiations may produce a "0" rating for the total negotiations by the unwillingness to enter open, serious negotiations.

+1 At minimum, <u>both</u> parties in the negotiations must demonstrate serious intentions to find a mutually agreeable solution by their willingness to listen, to consider seriously the other's point of view, needs, and proposed solutions. The negotiating parties do not need to decide on a mutually agreeable solution to earn a +1 rating. However, if players abdicate their self-interests as defined in the situation and basis for negotiation, the negotiations can only be rated 0.

+2 In addition to the characteristics of a +1 negotiation, the parties must reach a clear, mutually agreed upon solution to earn a +2. Solutions must reflect a way to satisfy clearly stated different needs of both teacher and students to earn a +2 rating.

6. The principal's decisions are final. Obviously, there is some room for differences in opinion about the proper rating of a three minute negotiation. The principal may request advice from the jury or, if either party is dissatisfied with the rating, the principal may ask the jury to arbitrate. In this case the jury's decision is final. However, it is the principal's option about whether or not to call for arbitration and this choice may not be appealed. In any event, it is pedagogically helpful for the

principal to explain the rationale for the rating.

7. If a "situation" suspends a student, the student must move to the "suspension room" on the board for the designated number of turns. During this time the player may not speak to any other player. When the suspension is over the player returns to "start" and moves around the board.
8. When a student or teacher completes a round of the board, s/he receives twenty-five (25) discipline credits. The winners are the players with the most discipline credits.
9. The game may continue as long as players feel it is a useful learning experience. Approximately twice around the board is a reasonable period for the purposes of the course.

General Instructions

1. Introducing the discipline game.

Although the game was designed to be used as part of an ongoing social literacy training program, it can be used by itself in a wide variety of other contexts, e.g. PTA meetings, board of education meetings, joint school committees studying the discipline problem, junior high school classrooms. Obviously, in each situation the purposes will be slightly different and require appropriate introductions. For example, many PTA groups are concerned about discipline problems in schools. The discipline game could be used to help parents reacquaint themselves with the array of specific problems at an experiential level and appreciate the difficulties experienced by teachers and students in solving them.

Based on this experience, parents should be better informed in discussing useful parent, teacher, student, and administration roles. If the game is used as part of a social literacy training for teachers, the first two paragraphs of the introduction, and all of sections III and VI should be read to orient players to the game.

2. Styles of playing the game.

The principal may wish to try out different roles--authoritarian, democratic, laissez faire, supportive, etc. However, if this is done during a single session, it is helpful to say publicly that s/he is experimenting with a different role, to be discussed at the end of the game. After players have gone around the board once, it is an appropriate time to announce a change of style.

You may also wish to give the jury specific instructions. For instance, you may want to announce that they have a board of high paid consultants who are available to players for advice on how and when to negotiate, for suggested alternative solutions. Or, you may want to use the jury as a mediating group to suggest ways that teacher/student negotiations can be more productive. Or, you might ask each member of the jury to be an analyst-recorder having a particular task: record the full list of expressed student and teacher needs; record the list of proposed and/or accepted solutions, describe the most and least effective negotiating strategies.

If the jury attempts to define effective negotiating strategies, they might keep in mind the following four questions: (1) Did the parties negotiating thoroughly discuss the problem or situation? (2) During the discussion did the negotiating parties each make suggestions as to possible solutions? (3) Did the negotiating parties show willingness to

move toward a third point of view as a compromise? and (4) If the negotiation process proved to be unsuccessful what factors contributed to the failure of the process? It may be useful to stop the game briefly after the players have gone around the board once, to discuss what constitutes effective negotiations.

To add spice to the game you may wish to write out brief role descriptions for the teacher and students that represent some of the student character-types encountered in your school.

If you want to concentrate solely on practicing negotiations, you can dispense with the game board and simply take each "situation" and "basis for negotiations" and role-play them.

Finally, to make the game more relevant to your particular school, create alternative "situations," "outcomes," and "bases for negotiations" to substitute for those in the manual.

3. Follow-up

Don't talk the game to death. As a general rule, try to stop the post-game analysis shortly after the energy of the discussion peaks. The experience during the game will be recalled and discussed spontaneously at several other points in the social literacy training course. It does not need to be analyzed completely immediately after playing the game.

Your choice of which questions to address after the game will depend on the timing, the context, and the type of people playing the game. Here are some possible questions to initiate the discussion or to keep the discussion lively:

How did you feel in your role?

Did you like it? Dislike it?

How typical was your experience compared to the classroom situation?

What were the needs, desires, goals, expressed during the negotiations?
Are these needs good or bad?
In what situations are they good?
In what situations are they bad?

What constitutes good negotiations?
Is it possible to actually negotiate with students in and outside the classroom?
To what degree are teachers afraid of giving up their traditional forms of power?
Is negotiating with students really giving up power?

What are the proposed solutions that came out of negotiations?
Are these feasible alternatives for the classroom?

What effect did the different styles of principal-ship have on students in the game?
What style is more conducive to productive negotiations?

In what ways does the teacher both win and lose in discipline conflicts?
In what ways do students both win and lose in these conflicts?

To what degree are the causes of discipline problems (a) in the students' or teachers' background, home life, or economic situa-

tion? (b) in the personality of the student or teacher? (c) in the formal and informal rules in the specific classroom? Depending on your answers, what needs to be changed to resolve these conflicts?

Brainstorm a list of: (1) other types of discipline conflicts in the classroom; (2) the other needs of teachers and students in these conflicts; and (3) other ways to solve these conflicts in the classroom without sending students to the front office.

Appropriate social literacy activities to follow the discipline game include vocabulary building (Name it), discipline role play analysis (Tame it), relating discipline issues to one's ideal self-image, values, and the demand of the classroom (Claim it). If this game is played in some context outside of social literacy training, you may wish to hand out one or both of the following short articles: Peter J. Kuriloff, "The Counselor as Psychologist," Journal of Personnel and Guidance, Vol. 51, No. 5 (January, 1973), 321-327; Alfred S. Alschuler and John V. Shea, "The Discipline Game: Playing Without Losers," Learning Magazine, (August-September, 1974), 80-86.

The Situation Manual

A. The Classroom

1) The situation

The student makes the following request to the teacher: "The class is tired after lunch and wants to talk instead of work."

The outcome

The teacher is aggravated and refuses the request after lengthy explanations about the impor-

tance of learning the names of the seven continents today. The teacher pays the student two discipline credits because the student succeeded in delaying the lesson by five minutes.

Basis for negotiations

Negotiate a way to deal constructively with both the lesson plan and students' fatigue.

2) The situation

The student returns from the bathroom after eight minutes, having promised to take no more than three minutes.

The outcome

The teacher requires the student to come in after school to make up the five minutes and also brings down the student's daily grade. The teacher gets five discipline credits from the student.

Basis for negotiations

Returning late from the bathroom is a long standing pattern. The teacher is always irritated. Students are bored with class. Negotiate a solution that meets the students' and teacher's needs.

3) Read the appropriate response

Student: You are sent to the front office for being in a fight in class. The assistant principal says it doesn't matter who started it, and suspends you for one day. (You miss one turn in the discipline game.)

Teacher: The front office has information that your certification is not in order. Pay the principal ten discipline credits and fret profusely.

4) The situation

The student calls the teacher a "feckless zebu" in class loud enough to be heard by others.

The outcome

The teacher lectures the student about proper language and behavior, but takes no punitive action. The teacher pays the student one discipline credit for helping the class avoid the lesson on animal anatomy without being punished.

Basis for negotiations

After class the student tells the teacher that s/he puts them down with her lectures about "proper behavior." The students feel that they can't let their true feelings be known so they mutter under their breath. Negotiate a mutually satisfying solution.

5) The situation

The English teacher before your class has lectured on the profound significance of silence in communications. The class arrives, sits down, fold their hands in unison and are completely silent despite your efforts to communicate.

The outcome

The teacher is totally frustrated and punishes the students with a pop quiz. The student pays the teacher four discipline credits.

Basis for negotiations

Establish communications without embarrassment to the teacher or student, and find a mutually agreeable solution to oppressive teacher-power and oppressive student-power.

6) The situation

A geography lesson is important for a state exam but is boring to both the teacher and students.

The outcome

About half the class talks and passes notes. The student gets two discipline credits for con-

trolling his/her attention.

Basis for negotiations

Negotiate a way to teach/learn the material in a way that is interesting to both the teacher and the student.

7) The situation

The following dialogue occurs between two students:

Student: "Hey Stanley, I hear your brother got suspended."

Stanley: "Ya, man."

Student: "That must make you feel good, cause now you got clothes to wear."

The teacher dislikes students putting each other down in class.

The outcome

The teacher breaks up the laughing and pays the student two discipline credits for catching the teacher's attention and delaying the class.

Basis for negotiations

Negotiate at least one way to have more fun in class that is satisfying to both the teacher and the student.

8) Read the appropriate response

Student: Mr. Foureyes sends you to the front office for grabbing a girl/boy. Pay the principal ten discipline credits.

Teacher: You have sent more students to the front office than anyone else. The principal wants to know why. Pay the principal ten discipline credits.

9) The situation

It's late Friday afternoon in an English class. A student gets up and begins to mock-wrestle

with another student.

The outcome

The teacher immediately threatens to cancel a showing of the "Last Tango in Paris" scheduled for the sex education class the following Monday. The class suddenly is passive and attentive. The student pays the teacher two discipline credits.

Basis for negotiations

The teacher stops the mock-fight. Negotiate a way to meet student needs for contact, movement, and attention in a constructive process of learning the subject matter.

10) The situation

The teacher threatens an inattentive student with having to do an extra worksheet on ancient Egyptian hieroglyphics.

The outcome

The student promises to pay attention and then daydreams the rest of the class. The teacher pays the student two discipline credits for maintaining control of his/her own attention.

Basis for negotiations

Negotiate with the students a way to make ancient Egyptian culture more interesting.

11) Read the appropriate response

Student: You are caught cutting science class and sent to the front office. Pay the principal ten discipline credits.

Teacher: You are called into the front office and informed by the principal that you are not allowed to wear denim pants to school. Pay the principal 14 discipline credits.

12) The situation

A street wise student returns to class after a long term suspension and wants a seat near his/her best friend. The two students have been difficult to deal with in the past.

The outcome

The teacher agrees to the request in order to avoid an immediate confrontation only to be disrupted two minutes later by the pair who begin to sing the latest hit song. The teacher pays the student three discipline credits because the teacher failed to establish a constructive collaborative relationship.

Basis for negotiation

Negotiate an agreement that allows the pair to sit next to each other and leads to cooperation with the teacher.

13) The situation

During a discussion in the classroom the teacher touches a student as s/he is emphasizing an important area. The student yells immediately, "Don't touch me."

The outcome

The lesson stops. The teacher is surprised, embarrassed and apologizes. The teacher pays the student five discipline credits for losing face in front of the class.

Basis for negotiations

The teacher and student have different conceptions of what touching means. Negotiate an understanding about when, where, and under what conditions touching in class is permissible.

14) Read the appropriate response

Student: The teacher and student have had

a loud argument in front of the class. You are now in the assistant principal's office. Pay him/her fifteen discipline credits.

Teacher: The principal calls you on the carpet because you are always late for school. Pay him/her fifteen discipline credits.

15) The situation

The teacher is called from the classroom for a parent conference. A substitute teacher is sent to cover the class. The students destroy the classroom and reduce the substitute teacher to a warm puddle of tears.

The outcome

The teacher is angry and punishes several students with detention. Even though you are the ringleader, you are not punished. Collect six discipline credits from the teacher.

Basis for negotiations

The regular teacher wants the class to exercise some minimal self-control when s/he is out of the room. The class doesn't want the teacher to be called to parent conferences on their time. Negotiate a mutually agreeable solution to the conflict.

16) The situation

The teacher screams at a student to turn around and pay attention. The student says something about the teacher's mother loud enough for some other students to hear.

The outcome

The teacher sends the student to the front office. The principal says that comments about mothers are out of place in school and suspends you one day. Miss one turn in the game and pay the

teacher and principal seven discipline credits each.

Basis for negotiations

The students want some time to talk and interact with their friends. They say that the teacher never lets them have any free time. The teacher wants full attention to the subject matter. Negotiate a resolution of this conflict.

17) The situation

The P.A. repeatedly comes on and distracts everyone. Students are unable to solve half of the math problems assigned to them.

The outcome

The distraction is a factor in causing the whole class problems on a test. All of the students and the teacher pay the principal three discipline credits each.

Basis for negotiations

Students want the teacher to speak to the principal about the distractions, but the teacher believes nothing can be done about this.

18) Read the appropriate response

Student: You spill paint on the floor in art class. Because of your past record you are accused of doing it on purpose and are sent to the front office. You are suspended one day. Miss one round of the game and pay the art teacher and the principal three discipline credits each.

Teacher: Your reading class disrupted the classes on either side of you. The front office wants to know why. Pay the principal ten discipline credits.

19) The situation

Students attempt to delay the start of class

by participating in a milling game around the teacher.

The outcome

The student is singled out by the teacher who asks if the student is "lost." Everyone in class laughs. The student pays each of the other student players and the teacher one discipline credit each.

Basis for negotiations

Students don't like the work in the class. They attempt to delay it by milling. Negotiate a way in which both teacher and student can win.

20) The situation

A student jumps up when the student behind him/her sticks him/her with a pin.

The outcome

The teacher gives the student detention. The student pays the teacher ten discipline credits.

Basis for negotiations

Students seem to get in trouble because they want attention. Negotiate a way in which the teacher still covers the material and gives individual attention to students.

21) The situation

A student tells the teacher s/he has a sore throat and is unable to recite in class.

The outcome

The teacher believes the story. Collect one discipline credit from each of the other players and from the teacher.

Basis for negotiations

Try and find some ways in which the student can participate without oral work.

22) The situation

The teacher lectures to the class for five minutes about bringing pencils and other necessary materials.

The outcome

The students prolong the discussion with many "yes, but" arguments and delay the learning time by fifteen minutes. The student collects three discipline credits from the teacher.

Basis for negotiations

The teacher wants students always to bring materials to class. Students believe that the teacher should have materials such as pencils for students who occasionally forget. Negotiate a solution that is mutually agreeable.

23) Read the appropriate response

Student: The teacher, principal, and guidance counselor say your records indicate you are a troublemaker. You are assigned to the remedial classroom. Pay the teacher and principal three discipline credits each.

Teacher: You have been assigned by the principal to teach this remedial classroom for one day. Miss one turn.

24) Read the appropriate response

Student: You emitted loud noxious vapors from both ends simultaneously. The teacher sends you to the front office where you get a ten minute lecture on chewing your food. Pay the principal eight discipline credits and collect five discipline credits from the teacher for successfully getting out of a dull class.

Teacher: The principal finds that you are having a smoke in the teachers' room while your

class does "busy" work. Pay five discipline credits to the principal.

25) The situation

A student is thirsty and wants to go to the water fountain in the hall. The teacher refuses permission.

The outcome

The teacher refuses permission. The student gets mad and refuses to work. The teacher keeps the student after school. Pay the teacher five discipline credits.

Basis for negotiations

The students want to be able to get a drink of water or go to their lockers when they need to. Negotiate a solution to this chronic problem.

26) The situation

A student places a comic book behind a textbook and reads it during class.

The outcome

The student is able to read the comic and put one over on the teacher. Collect two discipline credits from the teacher.

Basis for negotiations

Students would like for the teacher to talk about things that interest them. Negotiate some ways that the teacher can still cover the subject and let the students learn about some things that are important to them.

27) The situation

The entire class coughs at the same time, to get the teacher.

The outcome

The teacher heard you talking about coughing at the same time. The teacher assumes you are the leader and gives you detention. Pay the principal seven discipline credits.

Basis for negotiations

Students feel the teacher is too tough and doesn't let them participate in any decisions about how the class is to be run. The teacher believes s/he is doing what s/he is paid to do. Negotiate a mutually agreeable solution.

28) Read the appropriate response

Student: You refuse to stop dancing in class. The teacher sends you to the front office. The principal dismisses you for one day, which is what you wanted from the start. Collect four discipline credits from the teacher, four from the principal, and miss one turn in the game.

Teacher: You are called to the front office. The principal orders you to stop playing hooky from teachers' meetings. Pay the principal eight discipline credits.

29) The situation

The student spends the entire class period combing hair, cleaning nails and teeth.

The outcome

The teacher notices this grooming but says and does nothing. Collect one discipline credit from the teacher for being allowed to do your thing.

Basis for negotiations

The teacher says that even though this is a personal hygiene class, theory must precede practice and asks the student to read about the causes of tooth decay. The student says s/he already

knows about "that stuff." Negotiate a mutually agreeable resolution to the conflict.

30) The situation

The teacher catches the student passing a note to a friend. The note says, "look, the teacher's underpants are showing."

The outcome

The teacher reads the note substituting "your" for "the teacher." Collect three discipline credits from the teacher for successfully interrupting a deadly lesson, but pay each of the other players one discipline credit for being embarrassed.

Basis for negotiations

The student wants to be able to talk with other students occasionally during class. The teacher wants to maintain control and attention to the lesson. Negotiate an agreeable compromise.

31) The situation

A student does a Lenny Bruce routine and calls the teacher's attempts to stop the act "police oppression."

The outcome

The teacher sends "Lenny" to the front office "jail." The incident, however, leaves the teacher drained of energy and angry. No discipline credits change hands.

Basis for negotiations

The student believes that the teacher's standards of obsenity are victorian and that the true "obsenity" is the absence of sex in any of the textbooks. The teacher feels that this topic should be dealt with elsewhere, not in mathematics class. Try to resolve the issues in a mutually acceptable way.

32) The situation

A student falls asleep during class.

The outcome

The teacher makes the student stay after school for 40 minutes despite the student's protest that a family crises kept him/her awake all night. The student pays the teacher four discipline credits.

Basis for negotiations

The student's family problems interfere with learning in the classroom. The teacher believes s/he can or should do nothing about the student's home life as this is not the teacher's responsibility. Negotiate a mutually acceptable course of action.

33) The situation

The teacher catches a student passing a reefer to a friend in class.

The outcome

The student is sent to the front office and suspended for the duration of the year. However, the student makes $300 selling dope to classmates after school. The principal pays the student 25 discipline credits for effectively controlling his/her own attention and for the school's failure to provide sufficiently relevant, attractive subject matter.

Basis for negotiations

The student says that if the teacher sends him/her to the front office a long term suspension will result and the student will deal in drugs on the street. If the subject matter were more relevant and attractive the student wouldn't be risking a suspension by passing pot in class. The teacher considers this an irrelevant argument and an attempt

to avoid taking personal responsibility. Attempt to resolve this conflict of viewpoints.

34) The situation

Students keep getting up out of their seats. When the teacher finally threatens to send several students to the front office, one student quotes the following passage from the Declaration of Independence: "Governments are instituted among men, deriving their just powers from the consent of the governed." Further, the student says that the teacher is King George and the class is tyrannized.

The outcome

The teacher asserts that students are minors without these rights and until the teachers are overthrown, the current rules will remain. The student pays the teacher four discipline credits for allowing their attendance to be controlled unilaterally.

Basis for negotiations

The teacher and student get into an argument about constitutional law and classroom control. Try to resolve this debate.

35) The situation

A student refuses to work in class.

The outcome

The teacher manages to make the student look silly in front of the class. The student must pay each of the other student players one discipline credit each.

Basis for negotiations

The student won't work because the teacher treats students like babies. Can you work out the problem?

36) Read the appropriate response

Student: You are suspended for one day for throwing a rancid piece of meat back over the cafeteria counter. Miss one turn.

Teacher: You call in sick, but really need the day to do Christmas shopping. The principal finds out and docks you one day's pay. Pay the principal 20 discipline credits.

37) The situation

A student sitting near the teacher's desk as punishment for a recent classroom crime asks the teacher to let him/her sit in the back where there is more room to spread out the work.

The outcome

The teacher agrees and the student works hard. The principal pays three discipline credits to the teacher and to the student.

Basis for negotiations

The teacher is afraid that the student will be disruptive again. The student is quite sincerely trying to work. Establish trust.

38) The situation

The class arrives angry because the previous period math teacher gave them a snap quiz. They complain angrily to the teacher and won't get down to work.

The outcome

The teacher tries to be sympathetic and listens for five minutes. Because of lost learning time, the teacher pays the student five discipline credits for effectively shifting the content of the class's discussion.

Basis for negotiations

The students do not want any snap quizzes in the teacher's class. The teacher believes this is the best way to insure that students will keep up on their homework. Negotiate a mutually acceptable solution.

39) The situation

Fire drill! The principal pays all students and the teacher ten discipline credits for allowing them time to manage their own attention. (No negotiations.)

40) The situation

The student pulls out a knife.

The outcome

The teacher sends the student to the front office where the principal discovers that the student has been intimidated by a gang of students. The principal takes decisive action to control the explosive situation and pays the student five discipline credits for helping to defuse the problem.

Basis for negotiations

The student claims the knife is for self defense against the gang that is out to get the student. The teacher half believes the story but knows the school's policy that anyone caught with a weapon is automatically suspended. Negotiate a solution to the teacher's ambivalence.

B. Hazards and Hassles

1. Student: Before school you find out that your worst teacher is absent. Move ahead two spaces.

	Teacher:	Before school you find out that the kid who gives you the most trouble is out for the day. Move ahead two spaces.
2.	Student:	You run to the cafeteria, don't get caught, and get in front of the line. Move ahead two spaces.
	Teacher:	You go to the teachers' room and find that the principal has bought donuts for the faculty. Move ahead one space.
3.	Student:	You forget your book and are able to sleaze the teacher into letting you into class. Move ahead two spaces.
	Teacher:	You drop some papers in the hall and some students help you gather them up. Move ahead two spaces.
4.	Student:	There is name calling on the bus and you don't get involved. Move ahead one space.
	Teacher:	You hear about a fight on one of the buses but you are not on bus duty. Move ahead one space.
5.	Student:	You forgot to lock your locker but find that you haven't been ripped off. Move ahead one space.
	Teacher:	Your Union Representative tells you that the pay increase for next year is a good possibility. Move ahead one space.
6.	Student and Teacher:	You slip on the stairs and sprain your ankle. You are out for one day. Go back five spaces.

7. Student: You have to go back to your locker but still get to your class on time. Move ahead one space.

   Teacher: There are no incidents or fights while you are in the hall. Move ahead one space.

8. Student: You are given a compliment on your clothes by one of your friends. Move ahead two spaces.

   Teacher: The principal tells you he is pleased with your professional appearance. Move ahead three spaces.

9. Student: The teacher stops you in the hall to tell you that your work is really fine. Move ahead three spaces.

   Teacher: The principal tells you that school will be dismissed early. Move ahead one space.

10. Student: You are able to con the secretary in the office into giving you a tardy pass. Move ahead two spaces.

    Teacher: You find that there is no teachers' meeting after school and that you can go right home. Move ahead two spaces.

11. Student: You get caught shooting spitballs in assembly. Move back three spaces.

    Teacher: You have to break up a fight in the cafeteria. Move back three spaces.

12. Student: You and a friend are able to get into class without a tardy pass. Move ahead one space.

    Teacher: Your car won't start but you get to school on time with another teacher. Move ahead one space.

13. Student: You were able to talk to your friends about the party on Friday night and still get to class on time. Move ahead one space.

Teacher: You were able to get a smoke in the teachers' room without a hassle, then you get back to class. Move ahead two spaces.

14. Student: Someone pushes you on the stairs. You threaten their anatomy and get away with it. Move ahead two spaces.

Teacher: Your students want you to sponsor a new club they are starting. Move ahead two spaces.

15. Student: You go to the lunchroom and for a change they have good food. Move ahead one space.

Teacher: You have lunchroom duty and are able to get through the period without trouble. Move ahead one space.

16. Student: Someone starts throwing food in the cafeteria. You don't get hit. Move ahead two spaces.

Teacher: You hear that there was a food riot at second lunch, and are thankful you weren't on lunch duty. Move ahead two spaces.

17. Student: You were able to avoid the school "borrower" who wants a loan for lunch money. Move ahead one space.

Teacher: The principal passes you in the hall and compliments you on your fine teaching job. Move ahead one space.

18. Student: While strolling through the hall you see a new "chick" or "cool dude"

so fine that you almost freak out. Move ahead one space.

Teacher: Your supervisor stops you in the hall to tell you that he won't be able to visit you today. Move ahead one space.

19. Student: You were able to catch a smoke in the bathroom without getting caught. Move ahead two spaces.

Teacher: You were able to mark all the test papers during your free period so you can go to a movie tonight. Move ahead one space.

20. Student: You were caught walking through the hall while the Pledge of Allegiance was playing over the P.A. Move back two spaces.

Teacher: The Board of Education is withholding your check for some unknown reason. Move back four spaces.

21. Student. You were caught wandering through the halls during a class without a pass. Move back three spaces.

Teacher: You forget to set your alarm clock and oversleep. The principal calls you out for being late again. Move back two spaces.

22. Student: You forget your lunch money and con your teacher into giving you some money. Move ahead two spaces.

Teacher: The principal puts you down for talking to another teacher while on hall duty. Move back one space.

23. Student: You find out that a person you've been wanting to go out with really likes you. Move ahead three spaces.

Teacher: You are able to spend your free period in the teachers' room without getting into any arguments. Move ahead three spaces.

24. Student: Your teacher praises you for your excellent behavior on the class trip. Move ahead three spaces.

Teacher: You get through your class trip without any hassles. The kids are good, the buses don't break down, etc. Move ahead three spaces.

C. Guidance

1. Student: You have been called to Guidance because of your truancy record. You are nearly expelled as a punishment!! Pay the principal one discipline credit.

Teacher: Why haven't you turned in your Track form 150? Pay the principal two discipline credits.

2. Student: You are called to Guidance because of tardiness and have to wait two periods to see the counselor. Miss one turn and pay the principal five discipline credits.

Teacher: Your last 49 attendance reports are obviously a figment of your imagination. Pay the principal four discipline credits.

3. Student: You have been called in to see if you want to participate in an accelerated program. Collect two discipline credits from the principal.

Teacher: You are given only top sections to teach. Collect two discipline credits from the principal.

4. Student: Guidance wants you to go to the learning disabilities classroom. Miss one turn.

Teacher: Guidance office wants to know why your student records aren't up-to-date. Pay the principal three discipline credits.

5. Student: If your grades don't improve you will have to repeat the grade. Pay the principal three discipline credits.

Teacher: Why haven't your Phflug forms 245 been turned in yet? Pay the principal three discipline credits.

6. Student: Your records indicate that you are eligible to be promoted to a higher track. Collect ten discipline credits from the principal.

Teacher: An assignment to a curriculum writing team has come through. Collect three discipline credits from the principal.

7. Student: Congratulations. A teacher poll has shown you to be the biggest goody-goody in school. Collect five discipline credits from the principal.

Teacher: You are now on the Guidance list and may be promoted. Collect five discipline credits from the principal.

8. Student: Guidance wants to put you in a lower track. You aren't smart enough to

be in an academic section. Pay five discipline credits to the principal.

Teacher: Why haven't you recorded those statewide test scores on the students' records? Pay two discipline credits to the principal.

9. Student: Your record card indicates that you made the honor role. Collect five discipline credits from the principal.

Teacher: Guidance compliments you because your records are so perfect. Collect two discipline credits from the principal.

D. School Grounds

Student: ROLL ONE DIE

1--Somebody rips off your lunch money.

2-5--You get to and from school without a hassle.

6--Congratulations. You've met a cute boy/girl.

Teacher: ROLL ONE DIE

1--Your class runs out of school to a game. The principal chews you out, but doesn't penalize you.

2-5--You take a walk in the sun after lunch.

6--A former student thanks you for help.

E. Bathroom

Student: ROLL ONE DIE

1--You are caught smoking and are

suspended one day. Pay the principal five discipline credits.

2-5--In and out with no hassles. No points.

6--You are able to have a smoke and not get caught. Collect two discipline credits from the principal.

Teacher: ROLL ONE DIE

1--You see a student smoking and turn him/her in.

2-5--You are on bathroom coverage but encounter no problems.

6--You get relieved from bathroom coverage and have a free period. Collect five discipline credits from the principal.

F. Cafeteria

Student: ROLL ONE DIE

1--You are in a fight and have to spend two periods in the front office. Miss one turn in the game.

2-5--You are able to eat without a problem.

6--You find a dollar under your foot when you sit down to eat. Move ahead one space.

Teacher: ROLL ONE DIE

1--You had to stop a fight and your glasses were broken.

2-5--You talk happily with students.

6--Another teacher gives you a useful idea for your next day's lesson. Move ahead one space.

IV: APPENDIX

APPENDIX

WHY HUMANISTIC EDUCATION?

James Rayment*

For the student--

1. The student is helped to assume more responsibility for his/her behavior.
2. Students are given the freedom to make their own choices and thus develop their own decision making skills.
3. Students are in a non-threatening environment. Full attention can be given to the subject matter, not maintaining one's defensive image.
4. Humanistic education can improve one's self-concept and thus one's ability in school.

For the teacher--

1. It takes the strain of discipline off the teacher, thus making the job easier.
2. It gives the teacher more time and energy to teach during the school day.
3. It gives the teacher a sense of accomplishment knowing that he is teaching subject matter as well as helping the student become a better person.
4. Humanistic classrooms are a relaxing place to work.

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Some steps to bring about a humanistic classroom.

1. Assessing classroom climate.
   - 20 Self-Rating Questions for Teachers--Begin by looking at your behaviors. (Attachment A)
   - 20 Survey Questions for Students--Do your students agree with your perceptions of your behavior? (Attachment B)
   - Students Perception of Classroom Climate--Can your classroom climate be improved? (Attachment C)
2. How to start--trust building activities.
   - Non-critical Verbal Responses--Try using these responses in your classroom. (Attachment D)
   - 30 Clarifying Responses--Try asking some of these questions instead of giving advice to your students. (Attachment E)
   - Active Listening (by Thomas Gordon)--Teachers have more chances than counselors to help students. Active listening can be used to help students understand and find solutions to their problems. (Attachment F)
   - Building Positive Self-Concepts--You may wish to try this approach to discipline instead of a more traditional method. (Attachment G)
3. Where to go from here--the sky is the limit.
   - Values Clarification in Subject Matter--Sidney Simon, Merrill Harmon, Howard Kirschenbaum.
   - Moral Dilemmas--Lawrence Kohlberg.
   - Peer Counseling--Don and Mimi Samuels.
   - Classroom Meetings--William Glasser.

Attachment A

Student Service Center
Twenty Self-Rating Questions for Teachers

Answer "yes" or "no":

____ Do I really care and let my students know?

____ Do I really listen to my students and hear what they say?

____ Am I there when my students need me--after class, after school, at home by the telephone?

____ Do students bring their personal problems to me?

____ Am I there to make each student feel important, rather than just to make myself feel powerful?

____ Can I tell when a student is "up tight" and respond to his feeling?

____ Do I know my subject matter well enough to welcome all questions in class?

____ Do I get students to think instead of merely parroting back what I say?

____ Is there an orderly climate for learning in my classroom?

____ Do I emphasize learning more than discipline?

____ Do I spend time with the slow learners who really need it, rather than "copping out" by concentrating on just the bright ones?

____ Do I keep my students from getting bored or going to sleep in my class?

____ Do all my students participate?

____ Do I work my students and myself hard enough so we both end the year with a sense of accomplishment rather than merely a feeling of relief?

____ Do I grade on learning, rather than on a like-dislike basis?

____ Can I admit my own mistakes openly?

____ Can one of my students disagree with me and prove me wrong and we can still be friends?

____ Do students learn from my tests, instead of merely memorizing and then forgetting?

____ Would my students have characterized me on YOUTHPOLL as their best teacher?

Attachment B

Student Service Center
Twenty Survey Questions for Students

Answer "yes" or "no:"

_____ Does the teacher really care and let the students know?

_____ Does the teacher listen to the students and hear what they say?

_____ Is the teacher there when the students need him, after school, at home by the telephone?

_____ Can I take my personal problems to the teacher?

_____ Can the teacher tell when a student is "up tight" and respond to his feelings?

_____ Does the teacher know the subject matter well enough to welcome all questions in class?

_____ Does the teacher emphasize learning more than discipline?

_____ Does the teacher spend time with the slow learners who really need it, rather than "copping out" by concentrating on just the bright ones?

_____ Does the teacher keep the students from getting bored or going to sleep in his class?

_____ Do all students participate?

_____ Does the teacher grade on learning, rather than on a like-dislike basis?

_____ Can the teacher admit his own mistakes openly?

_____ Does the teacher remain friends with students who agree with him or prove him wrong?

_____ Do you learn from the tests, instead of merely memorizing and then forgetting?

Attachment C

Student's Perception of Classroom Climate

1. Do students in this class argue a lot?
2. Do you know most of your classmates very well?
3. Do you always know what you are supposed to do in this class?
4. Are the things you are interested in the same as the things your classmates are interested in?
5. Do you do many different things in class?
6. Do you feel good about being a member of this class?
7. Do you and your classmates all have an equal chance of saying things in class?
8. Is someone telling you what to do in class most of the time?
9. Are there times when you have nothing to do in class?
10. Do you feel like you belong in this class?
11. Do you think that you and your teacher believe in the same kinds of things?
12. Are certain people in this class given certain jobs to do all the time?
13. Does the teacher treat everyone in class the same?
14. Are there many rules in this class?
15. Are you allowed to say what you want in class?
16. Do students in this class treat each other the same?

Attachment D

Examples of Verbal Responses

Critical (Attacking)	Non-Critical (Clarifying)
1. Why do you say this?	This is an interesting idea. I wonder what would be some good reasons for holding this view?
2. Can you back your idea with facts?	OK. Fine. Now what kinds of facts could someone use who wanted to develop and expand this basic point?
3. Now stop and think. What did we say yesterday about this?	You have an interesting idea here. Let's see in what ways this can fit in with some of the information we accumulated yesterday.
4. No. I don't think that would fit because...	This might work. Let's explore it some more. Suppose someone said...how would you answer them?
5. This wouldn't work, I'm afraid. Can you see why?	OK, let's develop Mary's idea a little more. What would be some good points and bad points about this?
6. Can anyone see what's wrong with this idea (an obviously incorrect or trivial idea?	Good. Let's record this. (Writes on blackboard) What other possibilities are there?

7. What things are wrong with this, class?	This seems like a good suggestion. Are there any others we can add?
8. Why do you feel that way?	I certainly can see why you would feel this way. or Yes, I've felt that way also.

Attachment E

Thirty Clarifying Responses[1]

1. Is this something that you prize?
2. Are you glad about that?
3. How did you feel when that happened?
4. Did you consider any alternatives?
5. Have you felt this way for a long time?
6. Was that something that you yourself selected or chose?
7. Did you have to choose that; was it a free choice?
8. Did you do anything about that idea?
9. Can you give me some examples of that idea?
10. What do you mean by _____: Can you define that word?
11. Where would that idea lead; what would be its consequences?
12. Would you really do that or are you just talking?
13. Are you saying that... (repeat the statement)?
14. Did you say that... (repeat in some distorted way)?
15. Have you thought much about that idea (or behavior)?
16. What are some good things about that notion?
17. What do we have to assume for things to work out that way?
18. Is what you express consistent with... (note something else the person said or did that may point to an inconsistency)?
19. What other possibilities are there?
20. Is that a personal preference or do you think most people should believe that?
21. How can I help you do something about your idea?
22. Is there a purpose back of this activity?

23. Is that very important to you?
24. Do you do this often?
25. Would you like to tell others about your idea?
26. Do you have any reasons for saying (or doing) that?
27. Would you do the same thing over again?
28. How do you know it's right?
29. Do you value that?
30. Do you think people will always believe that?

These responses are based on the following Seven Valuing Criteria:[2]

1. Choosing from alternatives.
2. Choosing after careful consideration of the consequences of each alternative.
3. Choosing freely.
4. Prizing, being glad of one's choice.
5. Prizing, being willing to publicly affirm one's choice.
6. Acting upon one's choice, incorporating choices into behavior.
7. Acting upon one's choice repeatedly, over time.

Notes

[1]Louis E. Raths, Merrill Harmin, and Sidney Simon, Values and Teaching (Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Books, Inc., 1966).

[2]Ibid.

Attachment F

Active Listening

Instructions:	Discuss + and - response to be sure you understand them.
+ Response:	+ Responses are accepting, understanding responses. They are non-evaluative, non-blaming, non-judgmental. They say to the speaker, "I value you; I want to listen to you; I want to understand what you are saying and how you are feeling." These responses assure that the speaker and listener are understanding each other.
+3 Reflection:	This response is one which focuses on the speaker's feelings: How he is feeling at the moment; the way he feels. The listener shares how he feels listening to the speaker; how he would feel in the speaker's place.
+2 Restatement:	This response focuses on the content of the speakers message. The listener restates in his own words what he hears the speaker saying.
+1 Question:	This is designed to (1) provide the listener with more + data; (2) expand the perspective of the speaker. Caution: A question can be a statement of advice, or attack, or denial.
Advice Giving:	Too often the listener feels compelled to give advice and solve the speaker's problems before the real problem or concern is presented. Frequently the

initially presented concern is not the real concern. Listen actively before suggesting solutions.

- Responses: - Responses are evaluative, blaming, judgmental responses. They put the person down; deny him as a person with feelings and concerns. They convey to the person that he is not of enough worth or value to you to spend time trying to understand him.

-1 Joke: This response makes light of the speaker's concern. Often it reflects the listener's anxiousness or discomfort. It can say to the speaker: "You are not worthy enough for me to take seriously."

-2 Attack: This response is evaluative, judgmental, and blaming. It focuses on the person and puts him down. It says: "You are at fault and to blame; you are bad."

-3 Denial: This response denies the speaker his feelings. The listener tells the speaker not to worry or not to feel the way he is feeling. It may say to the speaker: "There is something wrong with you for feeling the way you do. I don't want to take the time to listen to you."

Attachment G

A More Humanistic Approach to Discipline*

Donald Felker, author of Building Positive Self-Concepts (1974), lists seven steps toward humanistic discipline.

1. Attend the student behavior. "What did you do?" might be a good question to ask. It might be necessary to repeat the question until the student can describe his behavior. Behavior should be focused upon, not motivation.
2. Encourage the student to assess his behavior in terms of its helpfulness to himself or others. "Was your behavior helpful to you or others? How was it helpful?"
3. Encourage the student to develop an alternative plan for governing his behavior. "What could you have done that might have been more helpful?"
4. Have the student sign a statement about his plan. The student must begin to assume some responsibility for his behavior.
5. At the end of the time period in the contract, have the student assess his performance.
6. Provide positive reinforcement for those aspects of the student's performance which were successful. Look for success and do not measure behavior by a standard. Any progress is good.

*Summarized from an article in the fall issue of "The Affective Education," by Kenneth E. Cogswell.

7. Encourage the student to make positive statements about his progress.

Felker gives additional hints:

- Don't try it first on the class terror.
- Avoid punishment.
- Do not accept excuses.